The Outlook

VOLUME 98 JUNE 17, 1911 NUMBER 7

PUBLISHED WEEKLY BY THE OUTLOOK COMPANY, 287 FOURTH AVENUE, NEW YORK
LAWRENCE F. ABBOTT, PRESIDENT. WILLIAM B. HOWLAND, TREASURER. KARL V. S. HOWLAND, SECRETARY
REGULAR WEEKLY NUMBERS, FIVE CENTS. MAGAZINE NUMBERS (FOURTH ISSUE OF EACH MONTH), FIFTEEN CENTS. YEARLY SUBSCRIPTIONS — FIFTY-TWO ISSUES — THREE DOLLARS IN ADVANCE. ENTERED AS SECOND-CLASS MATTER AT THE NEW YORK POST-OFFICE

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287 Fourth Avenue, New York City

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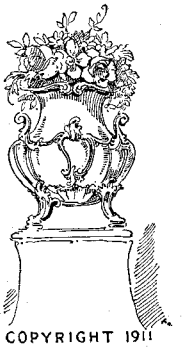

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The Outlook

JUNE 17, 1911

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SHALL THE GOVERNMENT LIMIT PRICES?

Last week The Outlook, in its comment on the tobacco decision of the Supreme Court, said that control of corporations by lawsuit had been shown to be inadequate, and should be displaced by control through a Federal Administrative Bureau which should be authorized, among other things, to regulate prices. A few years ago such a proposition would have been scouted as out of the question by any great leader in industry; yet, as that editorial statement was going to press, a leader of one of the greatest industries in the country was publicly saying the same thing. Ex-Judge Elbert H. Gary, chief executive official of the United States Steel Corporation, was testifying before a committee charged with investigating the so-called Steel Trust. In the course of his testimony, Judge Gary said, "We must come to enforced publicity and Governmental control." Thereupon the following colloquy, as reported in the press despatch, took place between him and members of the committee:

"Do you mean Government control of prices?"

"Yes. I mean just that. The Steel Corporation would be glad if it knew where it stood. We want to be free from danger, free from criticism by the public. If we had some place we could go to and say, Here are the facts and figures of our property, our cost prices; tell us what we have a right to charge—if we had some such governmental body, we would be glad to avail ourselves of the opportunity. Corporations have no right to ignore public questions and public interests."

"Do you mean that co-operation is bound to take the place of competition, and that co-operation must be regulated by the Government?"

"I mean just that."

It is clear from Mr. Gary's testimony that his experience as the executive head of one of the greatest industrial organizations in the world has convinced him that a law merely punishing corporations and their managers for practices tending to monopoly is unjust alike to the public and to the corporations—unjust to the corporations because it does not enable them to know what kind of combination is legitimate, and unjust to the public because it does not, as a matter of fact, prevent combinations that are illegitimate. After this it can no longer be intelligently said that there is anything chimerical or impractical in the proposition that the Bureau of Corporations in the Federal Government should have its hands on the great industrial corporations and make regulations concerning the price, the output, and the quality of their products.

SOUTHERN JUSTICE TO THE NEGRO

The Outlook published last week from a Southern correspondent the account of a lynching in Florida which is a disgrace to the State and to the county in which it occurred. It is unfortunate, but true, that one of the by-products of such an outrage is the outcropping of sectional prejudice in the North, just as the occurrence of such an outrage in a Northern State is apt to call out recriminations from farther South. The fact is that every lynching is a disgrace to the whole Nation, and should incite all Americans, not to useless criticism of others, but to effort for remedies. For that reason The Outlook regards as significant and hopeful two actions taken by Southern judges. The first of these to which we refer occurred in Alabama, and directly bore upon a lynching. In April a Negro, under the charge of criminal assault, was taken from the Bullock County jail by a mob and done to death. As a consequence, the

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sheriff of the county, P. W. Jinwright, was charged with willful neglect of duty, incompetence, and connivance. The evidence showed that the act of the lynchers was deliberate. Indeed, the Court refers to the mob as "leaving their guns in the sheriff's office" and going to a restaurant "to get their dinner." In spite of the fact that the sheriff thus had a respite, he "left the jail without a single man in it to save the prisoner, left the arms of the mob in his office with the door open, and suffered himself to be completely surprised and overcome by the mob." As a consequence, the Supreme Court of Alabama, all the justices concurring, found the sheriff negligent and removed him from office. This was the act of Southern men, and represents, it is hardly necessary to say, much more truly than any mob, the real sentiment of the South. The other case to which we refer deals, not with lynching, but with another form of injustice to the blacks. For eight days there was before the United States Circuit Court at Macon, Georgia, a case of men charged with peonage. It caused great excitement. The lawyer for the defense, in his address to the jury, used language in denunciation of the black victims of the peonage case and in inflaming appeals to race prejudice which brought forth a rebuke from Judge Speer. The attorney thus rebuked has already been elected Attorney-General of Georgia. It is not creditable to the State that a man capable of attempting to gain his point by an appeal to race prejudice should have been elected to that position; but it was highly creditable to the South that a Southern judge should recognize such an appeal as so great an offense as to justify even a threat of disbarment. Although the defendants were acquitted, this action of a Southern judge is of more use for the Negro in protecting him from servitude than many appointments given to Negro aspirants for public office. Coupled with these two actions of Southern judges should be mentioned the action of the Florida Legislature in passing a bill for the repeal of the convict lease system. If, as is hoped, that bill is passed again over the veto of Governor Gilchrist, it will be another demonstration of the truth that, in spite of lynching, and of appeals to race prejudice, and of reactionary public officials here and there, Southern public sentiment can be depended on to respond to any intelligent effort on behalf of justice for the Negro.

RECIPROCITY: PAPER AND LUMBER

Within a week President Taft has delivered two important addresses on the subject of Reciprocity in Canada. The first was in Chicago, before the Western Economic Society; the second in New York City, before the Inter-State Cottonseed Crushers' Association. The President's utterances were significant in that he defined the Administration's position regarding certain amendments very recently proposed to the bill now before the Senate in ratification of the Canadian Reciprocity Agreement. Of these amendments, the one proposed by Senator Root provides that not until each Canadian province shall have removed all restrictions upon the exportation of pulp wood, from which paper is manufactured, shall the United States permit paper from Canada to come in free. In the province of Quebec, for example, there is a restriction on the exportation of pulp wood cut on the public, or "crown," lands, but no restriction on the exportation of pulp wood cut on privately owned land. Under the bill as passed by the House, however, paper made from pulp wood cut on the private lands would come in free of duty, while the paper made from pulp wood cut on the crown lands would pay the present rate of duty of $5.75 a ton on newsprint paper. It is thus hoped that the difference between the duty on paper coming to this country and made from restricted wood in Canada and that made from unrestricted wood there will induce those Canadian provinces which hamper exports to stop their discriminations. As it stands, the bill ought ultimately to create a condition of absolute free trade in paper and its materials. The President believes that reciprocity will be not only the best thing for the consumers of paper but also for the manufacturers. Mr. Taft also urges that free trade in lumber would tend both to preserve our diminishing supply and to have a wholesome effect on the lumbering industry, in which,

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according to the Commissioner of Corporations, "a monopoly is neither remote nor improbable." It is not surprising, then, that paper and lumber "interests" oppose reciprocity.

RECIPROCITY: THE FARMERS

As a more formidable opposition to reciprocity, however, comes from a large class of farmers in the wheat-growing States, the "interests" above mentioned have, Mr. Taft indicates, co-operated with those farmers in distributing literature. The "interests" hoped thereby to popularize their present unfair advantage. The persons who prepared this literature have confessed to the Senate Finance Committee that their promises of remuneration for this service had come from the International Paper Company and the National Lumber Association. Thus danger to reciprocity proceeds not only from the honest and openly expressed opinion of some of our wheat farmers, but also from the disingenuous and secret opposition of some of our protected interests. In spite of what has been said to the contrary, a number of representative agricultural organs favor reciprocity and deplore the opposition to it—"Wallace's Farmer," "Profitable Farming," and "The Missouri and Kansas Farmer." To those who regard the Farmers' Free List Bill, which has passed the House, as a "sop" to the farmers, the President declares that, whatever its merits, action ought to be determined upon considerations wholly apart from the merits of the Reciprocity Agreement, since, claims Mr. Taft, there is no injustice done to the farmers by the Agreement. This statement accords with that of Representative Underwood, a Democrat, the sponsor of the Farmers' Free List Bill, who has said in the House, "I do not believe that the Canadian Reciprocity Agreement will in any way injure the farmer, and this Free List Bill is not offered to him in compensation." When the Free List Bill was offered as an amendment to the Reciprocity Bill in committee in the Senate last week, it was killed. The Nelson amendment, placing farm products at half the present duty instead of on the free list, was also killed. To those who still oppose reciprocity Mr. Taft argued that an enlargement of the supply of farm products ought not to injure the American agriculturist even on a comparison of percentages and rates with respect to special localities and special businesses. But the deeper and wider reason is, as the President says, the advantage of free trade between two countries alike in descent, education, ambitions, aspirations, labor cost, cost of living, and wealth *per capita*. One country needs what the other can and will produce.

THE LAW'S DELAYS

A step forward in remedying the evils of delay in legal procedure has just been taken. Chief Justice White, of the United States Supreme Court, last week announced the appointment of a committee to undertake a revision of the rules of practice in the Federal courts of equity. The Chief Justice will himself act as chairman, and Mr. Justice Lurton and Mr. Justice Van Devanter are to be his colleagues. This is, of course, only a limited application of a much-needed remedy, but it is brought to bear on a field where reform is very specially needed and where much can be accomplished by comparatively small changes. Moreover, the example set by this action of the Supreme Court is not unlikely to be followed by the State courts of highest jurisdiction, and it may well prove a starting-point for a radical and broad-minded revision of American judicial procedure. The action of the Chief Justice is particularly gratifying to President Taft, who has for years pointed out the obstruction and injustice caused by methods which are sometimes absurd and often cumbrous. Long ago The Outlook quoted Mr. Taft as saying: "The inevitable effect of the delays incident to the machinery now required in the settlement of controversies in judicial tribunals is to oppose and put at a disadvantage the poor litigant." In the same connection was quoted Mr. Roosevelt's assertion that in noted cases the improper regard paid to technicalities "has resulted in a striking denial of justice and flagrant wrong to the body politic." It is a recognized fact that the United States Supreme Court is almost crushed with the amount of work resting upon its shoulders; and

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it is intolerable that progress in disposing of this work should be held back by excessive regard for precedence in procedure. The Supreme Court should be an example to all the courts of the country, whether Federal or State. It is said that the congestion in the equity branch of the Supreme Court work has been such that private litigants have not been able to obtain a hearing until two years have elapsed after their cases have been filed. Lawyers themselves have felt that there was a demand for a sweeping revision of the rules of practice in the equity division of the Federal courts. Senator Root in the last Congress attempted to have a sum of money appropriated to pay the expenses of such a committee as has now been elected, but Congress failed to act. Some of the rules in the equity division date back to 1789, and no revision has been made for nearly sixty years. It is a common matter of complaint that poor men suffer unfair disadvantage as against the rich in seeking for justice. This may in part be unavoidable; but it is certainly the duty of the country, through its legislative and judicial officers, to reduce that disparity to the lowest possible point.

GOVERNOR HARMON'S RECORD

Among possible Democratic Presidential candidates in 1912, Governor Wilson, of New Jersey, is generally looked upon as a Progressive, and Governor Harmon, of Ohio, as a Conservative. Yet the bills enacted by the Ohio Legislature, which has just adjourned, would indicate that Governor Harmon is certainly not an ultra-Conservative. The most important of the measures, however, the Utilities Bill, is in its radical features the work of Mr. Langdon, Republican minority leader in the lower house. This bill has been compared to the Utility Acts of New York, New Jersey, and Wisconsin. It converts the State Railway Commission into a Public Service Commission, broadening its powers so as to control not only railway and traction lines, but all other public utilities; in especial, the Commission is empowered to regulate the issuance of securities, to value the physical property, and to decide what are just and reasonable rates for service. In making valuation for rate-fixing purposes franchise and monopoly values may not be considered, but only the value of the property used or useful for public convenience. Municipal councils retain powers of renewing rate contracts for utilities, and, while any referendum is prohibited on such contracts, either the people or the utility company may appeal to the State Board. With regard to gas and electric light rates, joint State and local municipal control is provided, the local councils to take the initiative in prescribing rates for periods not in excess of ten years; a referendum vote may be had on these rates. Street railways are excluded from the otherwise general State control. Among the other notable bills passed were a Workingmen's Compensation Act in accord with advanced principles of legislation, a Corrupt Practices Act, a limited initiative and referendum for cities, a nine-hour work-day for employed women, the requirement that agriculture shall be taught in all village and country schools, and a central board of control for nineteen State institutions, replacing nineteen separate boards of trustees and placing the subordinate employees in those institutions under the Civil Service.

A CITY WELFARE BOARD

In recent years remedial institutions have multiplied in American cities. The provident loan association, the legal aid bureau, the municipal lodging-house, the bureau of paroles—these and similar agencies have become familiar features of philanthropic activity. Usually they are conducted as independent institutions, most of them under private direction. Kansas City, Missouri, for the last year or two has been trying the unique and interesting experiment of correlating many of these remedial activities under the direction of a municipal board, now known as the Board of Public Welfare. The advantages of such a system in preventing duplication of effort and in its possibilities for efficiency and for handling important problems adequately are obvious. The Board, for instance, has undertaken an investigation of all the private charities that appeal to the public for support. Its approval of an institution is a guarantee

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to the public that contributions to that particular charity will be directed, with at least a fair degree of efficiency, to worthy ends. In other cities where the necessity for this work has been recognized it usually has been handled by private or by semi-public organizations. Naturally, too, the Board has served the purpose of an Associated Charities organization by establishing a registration bureau which maintains a card index of all cases of relief reported by private charities. This confidential clearing-house makes it possible for the private charities to prevent duplication, and to avoid repeated investigation of the same family. Further, the data thus obtained of all the charitable work of the city enables the Board to formulate policies for improving conditions with knowledge of the neglected phases of the situation. In connection with its registration bureau the Board has found it advisable to take over the general work of investigating applications for relief that are made to the private charities of the city. Eight special investigators are assigned to this department. To them are assigned the problems of the families that are aided by the day nurseries, the hospitals, the Juvenile Court, the Provident Association, and similar institutions. In addition to the investigation of cases of destitution, the Board has undertaken a general social survey of the city. This includes housing and working conditions and the question of unemployment. A special corps of investigators is assigned to this work. They have already reported to the proper city officials several hundred violations of city ordinances in tenements and old houses. Reports are to be published later showing in detail the situation regarding conditions. While no city organization could hope to deal with the problem of unemployment, the necessity for remedial measures early became apparent, and a municipal rock quarry was established. Its purpose was to give work that would tide over men in periods of great need. Payment is made in checks that are good for meals at various restaurants and for cheap lodgings. In the winter, when work is slack, the quarry has proved a godsend to hundreds of men who have with pathetic eagerness sought the chance to earn food and clothes. To help these men find permanent employment the Board maintains a free employment bureau.

HELP FOR THE HELPLESS

In putting a legal aid bureau under the charge of the Board of Public Welfare, Kansas City is working toward the ideal of making legal justice open to all, poor as well as rich. The bureau is in charge of salaried officials, but they have the assistance of a large volunteer staff. There can be no question of its importance as a remedial agency. It reports, for instance, that in four months it collected $5,000 in wage claims in amounts ranging from 50 cents to $25, and handled 78 cases of non-support and wife desertion, with the result that in most of the cases men are now contributing regularly to the support of their families. Another result of its work has been to call public attention to abuses in justices' courts and in the pawnshops, and to initiate legislation which has been enacted by the Missouri Legislature to remedy the evils. In dealing with pawnshop abuses the attention of the Board was directed toward the necessity of a loan agency. It was not thought best to use the city's funds for this work, but the President of the Board, Mr. William Volker, a man of rare public spirit and generosity, offered to supply the capital that was needed if the Board would undertake the direction of the work. The advantage of having it conducted from the central office, with the facilities for information there available, is apparent. The agency charges one per cent a month interest, with a fee for recording the application and appraising the chattels on which the loan is based. This fee brings the general charge up to two per cent a month. It is intended to pay six per cent a year for the use of the capital invested in the agency, and to use any further proceeds to defray operating expenses and to accumulate a guarantee fund. In taking charge of the workhouse, in which violators of city ordinances are confined, the Board was impressed with two facts: first, that the imprisonment of heads of families brought much suffering to those who were dependent on them,

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and, second, that imprisonment in the workhouse was not conducive to the reform of the prisoners. So a system was arranged by which account was kept of the work done by prisoners, on the basis of which money payment is made to their families. Through a careful supervision of paroled prisoners more than $600 a month is collected from men outside the workhouse and paid to families. In dealing with the second problem the Board bought a farm of 130 acres eight miles from the center of the town and set the prisoners to work on it. The farm has been one of the conspicuous successes of the welfare movement. While the prisoners work on it without shackles, constructing buildings, making roads, and farming, few of them have attempted to escape. The Board hopes eventually to be able to accommodate the entire population of the workhouse there. At present about one hundred prisoners are sent to the farm. Parole officers are in attendance at each of the municipal courts to investigate the cases and report to the Board. Another activity is the supervision of public dances, and the investigation of moving-picture shows and of theatrical performances. Kansas City has been particularly fortunate in having the services, as President of the Board, of Mr. William Volker, who has already been referred to. Mr. Volker is a merchant of large means, who has given as freely of his time as he has of his money in increasing the usefulness of the organization. The Board is composed of five members appointed by the Mayor, who serve without pay. Already it has become a very important factor in the life and development of the city. Needless to say, it is non-political, and the political affiliations of its members are probably unknown to most persons in Kansas City. All these activities, except those of the remedial loan agency, it should be remembered, are conducted by the municipality at public expense. No other city, it is believed, has attempted such extensive social service. Should the experience of Kansas City continue to be successful, the plan is likely to be widely adopted. For obviously the community as a whole has ample resources and is better equipped to deal with social problems on an adequate scale than any private organization can be. It therefore stands in a position of peculiar advantage in such an experiment.

THE DECLARATION OF LONDON

With his customary astuteness, Mr. Asquith, British Prime Minister, recently submitted the question to the members of the Imperial Conference—composed largely of delegates from the British oversea dominions—now in session, as to whether the Declaration of London should be approved. Last week the Conference answered it affirmatively. The Declaration of London summarizes the conclusions of the delegates sent to London by the ten principal maritime nations to frame a set of rules for the guidance of the International Prize Court established by the Second Hague Conference (1907). As the American Government has steadily contended for the immunity of private property captured at sea in time of war, we are gratified that the Declaration provides for the protection of much of such property; in especial, it declares that particular classes of property, like foodstuffs, clothing, and fuel, are to be regarded as contraband only when intended for the direct use of the enemy's forces. But our historic position with regard to the matter is not England's. For centuries Englishmen have feared that their food supply might be cut off in case of war. Now, however, some of them, we are glad to say, have come to the conclusion that, by such a Declaration, England, if she maintains her naval position, twice as strong as that of any other two maritime nations, has nothing to fear when she is a combatant, while as a neutral she should greatly profit by it, for the amount of England's food supply carried in foreign ships is comparatively small. The bulk is carried in British vessels, and what other nation has so great a tonnage of fast merchant ships? Those who wish to keep England to her narrow traditional policy have long buttressed themselves by quoting the opinions of some colonial experts to the effect that if, in time of war, private property were absolutely protected, the diminution of England's maritime influence might be expected. This was the reason for

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submitting the question to other oversea statesmen. With their approval of the Declaration there comes to an end, we hope, the danger of its non-ratification by Parliament. Certainly we may rely on one element, the constantly increasing sentiment in favor of all humane projects bearing on the question of war, not only in England, but throughout the world.

MADERO IN POWER

While Señor Francisco de la Barra is Provisional President of Mexico, and will remain so until the election to be held next autumn, Señor Francisco Madero, with his arrival at Mexico City last week, became the most powerful influence in Mexican affairs, and in all probability will in due time be chosen President. Not even the terrors of a severe earthquake, felt on the morning before Madero's arrival and accompanied with the loss of about sixty lives and the destruction of much property, cooled the enthusiasm with which the capital welcomed the leader of the insurrectos; reports say that the demonstrations were loudest and most eager among those who wore "the straw sombrero of the common people;" and in more ways than one it is evident that the Maderista victory is looked at as offering hope and opportunity to the working population, who feel that the great landowners and the holders of valuable contracts and concessions have had unfair advantages. Madero has disowned allegations that his policy will be one of "Mexico for the Mexicans" in the sense that foreigners are to be excluded or discriminated against; has promised real freedom of the press and of public speech; and has expressed his purpose to put down brigandage and lawlessness, and to insure peace, honesty, and self-government in a sense heretofore not understood in Mexico.

BRAVE KEEPERS OF THE LIGHT

The disorders of society are spread at large on the first page of every newspaper; its heroisms, self-denials, and sacrifices go largely unrecorded. France, like this country, suffers from the long-established habit of being suspected of all manner of extravagances; and every evidence of rashness, excess, or passion is seized upon as a confirmation of this ancient suspicion that stability and self-denial are not to be expected of so volatile a people. No other people are so little understood as the French, except ourselves. From time to time, however, some incident gets into print which gives the world a glimpse into the French nature. Such an incident, with a very dramatic setting, is reported by the New York "Tribune." On a wind-swept point on the coast of Brittany, a province which sent many brave sailors and explorers to this continent in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, there stands a lighthouse. Recently, while cleaning the light, the keeper became suddenly ill, but kept at his task until he was carried to his bed in a dying condition by his faithful wife. There were four children in the house, but there was no way of summoning help. When night came, the wife climbed the tower, lighted the lamp, and got back to her husband just in time to hear his last words. Later one of the children discovered that the light had ceased to revolve, realized instantly that it might be mistaken for one of the fixed lights on the coast, rushed up the tower, and worked for an hour in a fruitless effort to repair the mechanism. A fierce storm was coming on, and, finding the mechanism immovable, the two eldest children, aged seven and ten, turned the heavy lamp all night with their own hands. This incident recalls Maeterlinck's illustration of the relative claims of the near and far duty in the case of the lighthouse-keeper who defended his oil from the frantic assaults of the starving people of the little village on the beach, in order that he might protect those whom he was set to serve on the high seas.

A COLOSSAL MONUMENT

The dedication of the colossal monument to Victor Emanuel II, the leader of the national movement in Italy and the grandfather of the present King, brought together nearly a million people; and the interest was deepened by the commemoration at the same time of the granting of the constitution in 1848 by King Charles Albert of Sardinia, father of Victor Emmanuel II of Italy—a constitution under

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which United Italy has mightily thriven. The King, Queen, and Dowager Queen Margherita—who still retains her old-time popularity—and other members of the royal house were present, and so were the people of Rome in vast numbers, with men and women from the provinces. It is reported that nearly eight thousand Mayors, drawn from all parts of the country, were in attendance. The monument is on a colossal scale; on a scale, indeed, which dwarfs the city of Rome, and, so to speak, throws it out of perspective. It stands on the left section of the Capitoline Hill fronting the Corso, and serves as a pedestal for a gilded bronze statue of the King Liberator which stands out against the white background of the marble colonnade with such distinctness that it can be seen at a great distance. The massive base of the statue serves as an "Altar of the Fatherland," and was surrounded on the day of the dedication by the flags of all the Italian regiments, by representatives from the army, and by veterans of the War of Independence, many of whom wore the picturesque uniforms of the older time and the red shirt which was the conspicuous dress of the followers of Garibaldi. The monument is an enormous portico of white marble, with sixteen columns, surmounted by a frieze. Its length is five hundred feet, its depth four hundred and fifty feet, and its height two hundred and fifty feet. Thirty years' work has already been put upon it; and it is estimated that, when completed, its cost will be not less than twenty millions. The plan, secured by competition, was made by a young architect, Sacconi. The corner-stone was laid in March, 1885. Sacconi did not live to finish the structure. Three other architects have since been in charge, one of whom has also died, as has the sculptor of the equestrian statue. The interior of the monument is given up to a museum, in which will be gathered all the accessible mementoes of the struggle through which Italy passed to unity and independence. The principal speech was made by Premier Giolitti, who said that the monument, which recalled the glories of ancient Rome, was dedicated by the Italian people to the Father of the country, and typifies the struggles, sacrifices, martyrdoms, and heroisms which made the resurrection of Italy possible.

CARDINAL GIBBONS

The fiftieth anniversary of the consecration of Cardinal Gibbons as priest and the twenty-fifth anniversary of his elevation to the Cardinalate was celebrated last week in Baltimore in the presence of a great audience and with expressions of affection so many and so warm as to constitute a memorable tribute to his character even more than to his ecclesiastical position. The presence of men of the highest official station and distinction, while it did not make the observance of the event official, gave it National significance and importance. President Taft rightly interpreted the presence of the Chief Magistrate of the Nation, of the Vice-President, the Chief Justice, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, the Governor of the State, Mr. Roosevelt, and other men of distinction, as a recognition of the high virtues of Cardinal Gibbons as "a patriotic member of our political community," who has demonstrated the consistency "between earnest and single-minded patriotism and love of country on the one hand, and sincere devotion to his Church on the other." Mr. Roosevelt had to wait until the audience had tired of cheering to declare that there will be no complaints of the Church if the Church "makes as its cardinal principle the rendering of service to the people;" and he declared that we shall see Presidents who are Catholics as well as Presidents who are Protestants, Presidents who are Jews as well as Presidents who are Gentiles. Senator Root interpreted the celebration as showing that the separation of Church and State does not mean the separation of the people from religion, and declared that Cardinal Gibbons is a bulwark against atheism, anarchy, and the effort to tear down morality and government. In his reply to the tribute paid him by all the speakers, Cardinal Gibbons claimed only the merit of ardent love of the country and its institutions:

"I consider the Republic of the United States," he said, "one of the most precious heirlooms ever bestowed on mankind down the ages, and that it is the duty and should be the delight of every citizen to strengthen and perpetuate our government by the ob-

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servance of its laws and by the integrity of his private life. 'Righteousness,' says the Book of Proverbs, 'exalteth a nation, but sin is a reproach to the people.' . . . When the framers of our immortal Constitution were in session, Benjamin Franklin complained to his colleagues of the small progress they had made after several weeks of deliberation. He used these memorable words: 'We have spent many days in fruitless discussion. We have been groping in the dark, because we have not sought light from the Father of Light to illumine our understanding. I have lived for many years, and the longer I live the more convincing proofs I have that God governs the affairs of men. And if a sparrow cannot fall to the ground without his notice, is it probable that an empire can rise without his aid and co-operation? We are told in the same sacred writings that "unless the Lord build the house, he laboreth in vain who buildeth it."' It is true, indeed, that there is no official union of Church and State in this country. But we must not infer from this that there is any antagonism between the civil and religious authorities. Far from it, the Church and State move on parallel lines. They mutually assist one another. The State holds over the spiritual rulers the ægis of its protection without interfering with the sacred and God-given rights of conscience. And the Church, on her part, helps to enforce the civil laws by moral and religious sanctions."

AN AMERICAN CARDINAL

The Outlook joins in the congratulations extended by his fellow-citizens to Cardinal Gibbons at this anniversary. We are glad that the people of the United States were semi-officially represented at this gathering in the Cardinal's honor by President Taft and ex-President Roosevelt and other men distinguished in public life. For such an occasion is not purely personal. It also recognizes the value to the American people of the Roman Catholic Church in particular and of the institutions of religion in general. The influence of Cardinal Gibbons during these twenty-five years of official ministry has been wholly for the best things: for temperance in personal life, for purity in the home, for the protection of women and children, for a broad democratic education, for honesty in business, for probity in public life, for peaceful relations between the various elements in our American brotherhood, for international peace, and for a true Catholicism in religion, the Catholicism which includes loyalty to one's own faith and respect for the faith of one's neighbor. The Roman Catholic Church, in so far as it has been guided by his influence, has been also an American Catholic Church. Its service to law and order, peace and security, kindliness and good will, deserves the recognition which it is increasingly receiving from Protestants; and the advantages which the Church receives, in its ethical and spiritual ministry, from the absolute separation of Church and State in America, and the consequent decrease of sectarian prejudice and hostility, is, we believe, increasingly recognized by the Church here and is beginning to be recognized by the Church in other lands. And this increase of mutual respect for differing forms of faith has tended irresistibly, though quietly and almost imperceptibly, to the development of a universal respect for that spirit of reverence to God and good will toward men which is the essence of all true religion, and of which every phase of religious creed, ritual, and organization is a manifestation.

JOHN HOWARD PAYNE

Few men have done less in the way of positive contribution to American literature, or are more widely known, than John Howard Payne, the author of "Home, Sweet Home," perhaps the best-known song in this country—possibly in the English-speaking world. The contrast between Payne's work and his reputation is heightened by the contrast between his sentiment as expressed in his song and his career. He made himself the most popular minstrel of the home, and spent practically his whole life in exile. He was born in New York City, but his boyhood was largely spent in eastern Long Island. He was a student in Union College, now Union University, at Schenectady, New York, but his education was interrupted by the business failure of his father. He then decided to go on the stage, and made his début at the old Park Theater in New York City. He was successful, and appeared before large and enthusiastic audiences in other cities. In 1813 he sailed for England, and made his appearance at the Drury Lane Theater, in London, in his original part of Young Norval in "Douglas." He had decided talents as actor, manager, and playwright,

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but was conspicuously lacking in business ability, and was continually in financial embarrassment. He wrote plays, verse, and criticism, and he was skillful at adaptation. "Home, Sweet Home" was written as a song in his opera "Clari; or, The Maid of Milan," which was produced at Covent Garden Theater in 1823. In 1832 Payne returned to America, and ten years later went to Tunis, Africa, as Consul; he was recalled in 1845, and reappointed in 1851. He died at Tunis in 1852, and was buried in the Cemetery of St. George; but his remains were brought to Washington in 1883, and reinterred in the presence of a distinguished company. This extraordinary career is to be commemorated on the campus of Union University, where Payne spent his student days, by the dedication of a Memorial Gateway at the entrance to Library Lane, a very attractive roadway on the campus. Although the plan of erecting a college memorial to Payne was not launched until about a year ago, such interest has been taken that a much greater sum will probably be realized than the cost of the gateway, and in that case the surplus will be devoted to the establishment of a chair of English Poetry in Union University.

STRIKERS KEEPING ORDER

The violence that so often accompanies strikes has usually been laid at the door of the strikers, and has therefore undoubtedly done much to smirch the name of labor unions. In general, such violence has been supposed to be in the interest of labor organizations, and the loudest denunciations of it have been those of the labor unions' opponents. The Outlook has often pointed out that the opposite ought to be the rule; that the most vigorous opposition and resistance to the spirit of violence should come from the labor unions themselves. It is with special gratification, therefore, that The Outlook records an instance in which striking workmen have taken this position. In the strike in the furniture factories of Grand Rapids, Michigan, of which The Outlook has already given some account, there has been some disorder. In one instance a crowd consisting of some strikers and many irresponsible people, with a number of women and children—the great majority being foreigners—threw stones and other missiles at a factory and at automobiles bearing non-union workmen. The women in the crowd were specially active in the violence. The mob badly beat a number of policemen who were called out to restore order, and after an exchange of revolver shots was subdued only when the Fire Department had been called out and had directed upon the crowd a powerful stream of water. The next day one of the daily papers of the city, the "Evening Press," which had shown a sympathetic understanding of the strikers' cause, called upon the strikers themselves to defend their good name and the good name of their cause by offering themselves in response to the call issued by the Mayor for special policemen. As a consequence, out of the hundred men sworn for special duty, about one-third were striking furniture workers. Thus it happens that men on strike are helping to guard the factories in which they have refused to work, and to check the disorder of irresponsible sympathizers. Such workingmen show themselves not only good citizens, whose patriotism takes a practical form, but also the wisest kind of advocates for the advancing cause of the wage-earner.

THE WORLD'S STUDENT CHRISTIAN FEDERATION

Among organized religious activities which recognize the peculiar conditions, responsibilities, and duties of our own time the World's Student Christian Federation stands in a foremost place. Its meeting this year took place at Robert College, Constantinople. That such a gathering could assemble in the Turkish Empire without hindrance of any sort is certainly a testimony to the change that has taken place there. The members of the Conference came from no less than thirty-three countries; of course each of the twelve Student Movements comprising the World's Student Christian Federation was represented. Perhaps the most interested persons in the audience were the Gregorians, Greeks, Maronites, Copts, Syrians, and other delegates from Turkey, together with those from Greece, Bulgaria, Servia, and Rumania—that is to say, from the lands most easily

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reached from Constantinople, lands in which religious problems are particularly acute. We are not surprised, then, at the interest shown by the leaders of the various branches of the Christian Church in the Near East, for the Ecumenical Patriarch of the Orthodox Greek Church, the Armenian Patriarch, and the Bulgarian Exarch each sent a special representative. Moreover, two bishops of the Orthodox Greek Church attended the Conference, while important schools and seminaries of this communion were also represented. Never before did so many branches of the Eastern churches meet representatively with Christians of the West and of the Far East. Addresses were given each day at five centers in Constantinople, and they met the needs of various classes by being given in Turkish, Armenian, French, and English. The five centers were the chapel of the Dutch Embassy, the halls of the Union Français and of the Syllogos, the English and the American schools. In the addresses before the Conference proper the greatest emphasis was laid upon the apologetic of Christianity, a series of lectures being given by an international group of teachers, including Dean Bosworth, of Oberlin; Professors Sadler, of Manchester, Cairns, of Aberdeen, Schaeder, of Kiel, and Söderblom, of Upsala. Several of the speakers have remained to carry the spirit of the Conference to various student centers—Athens, Salonika, Smyrna, Harput, and other places in Asia Minor, Jerusalem, Cairo, Sofia, Belgrade, Bucharest, and Budapest. The influence of the Constantinople meeting should be, if not deeper, at least wider in extent than that of any preceding World Student Conference.

WOMEN IN CHINA

Strange as it may seem, women's advancement in China has latterly been greater, relatively speaking, than the advancement among men. The aim of the native women leaders is to follow out the old Chinese ethical idea to do what is right without regard to the ideas of foreigners. Hence the Chinese women who have come to this country for education have gained it without thought of whether they are to hold their own against similarly bred women in America or not. Of course the Chinese women physicians and nurses have to spread their work over a far greater region than do the women physicians and nurses of our own country. Take, for example, a district like the one centering in Kiukiang, Central China, where Dr. Mary Stone (the English name of a Chinese woman physician graduated from Michigan University Medical College) is the only physician among several million people! Again, by sheer necessity, the nurse must often become the physician. The half-dozen women physicians trained in this country and now at work in China, the very much larger number of nurses, and the forty or more Chinese young women now studying in America and Europe, constitute the nucleus of a body of women workers which may leaven the whole Chinese lump. As a large proportion of these women are Christians, the influence of the native women at work as physicians and nurses will be of double value. Regarding recent concrete cases evidencing progress, attention may be called to the interesting endeavor towards the erection of an up-to-date hospital and school for cripples in China, the first of its kind in that country. It is expected to be operated in connection with Dr. Stone's hospital at Kiukiang. A hospital, under the direction of the Methodist Woman's Foreign Missionary Society, has been established at Ngucheng by Dr. Li Bi Cu, a Chinese woman graduate of the Woman's Medical College of Philadelphia. The vicissitudes of life are seen in Dr. Li's career and in the story of her mother. When the mother was a baby, only a few days old, she was thrown into the street because she was the third daughter of parents who did not want another girl. Missionaries picked her up, cared for her, placed her later in their schools, and, when a young girl, she married a Chinese Christian clergyman. Their first child became Dr. Li. At Kiukiang and Ngucheng the yearly list of applications for treatment ranges from fifteen thousand to thirty thousand; the need of hospitals at those places is thus evident, and the work of women there must be, as it has already been, significant of what may be accomplished elsewhere in China.

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SCHEDULE K

Schedule K is that section of the Tariff Law which determines the duties on wool and woolen goods. The Democratic caucus has unanimously voted so to amend this schedule as to reduce the duties about fifty per cent; it has refused to adopt Mr. Bryan's recommendation for free wool. This action insures the early passage in the Democratic House of such an amendment to the tariff. It does not insure its passage in the Senate. On the contrary, the amendment will probably not be adopted by the Senate. In that case there will be presented to the country a fairly clean-cut issue on the tariff between the Democratic and the Republican parties. For that result, thanks. A clean-cut issue between the parties is greatly to be desired.

The tariff question is not a dry, economic question. It is a vital, human question.

The argument for Schedule K—that is, for the present high protective duties on wool and woolens—may be briefly stated as follows: Over a million farmers raise sheep for their wool. Nearly a quarter of a million people are employed in the woolen mills. These mills are owned, not by a few rich capitalists, but by many thousands of stockholders. Thus approximately a million and a quarter workers—that is, five million people, including wives, mothers, and children—are dependent on the wool industry for their daily bread. Anything which threatens this industry threatens their livelihood. Moreover, if their profits and wages are decreased, their purchasing power is decreased; and so, indirectly, the profits and wages of thousands of others not engaged in the woolen industry. This is the human argument for leaving the wool schedule alone.

On the other side: If there are five million people interested in maintaining present prices for woolen goods, there are approximately ninety million people interested in reducing those prices. For there is scarcely a man, woman, or child (except perhaps a few in the extreme South) who is not affected by the high prices of woolen goods. It has been asserted by the National Clothiers' Association that the advanced prices on woolen goods add approximately five dollars to a twenty-dollar suit of clothes. Women's dress goods have been similarly advanced in price. Flannels, blankets, and underwear are about doubled in cost. In consequence, hosts of people of limited incomes cannot buy clothing which is all wool. They must buy "shoddy." Instead, therefore, of warm clothing, warm blankets, warm woolens of all kinds, they get clothing, blankets, and the like which are inadequate for protection against the cold.

This is the issue between the producer and the consumer, between the five millions and the ninety millions. But the producer is also a consumer. And the protected manufacturer, wage-earner, and farmer also have to pay a high price for their woolens or go inadequately protected against the cold.

On this issue The Outlook cannot entertain a doubt. It believes in securing comfort and health for the ninety millions rather than good profits and wages for the five millions. In its issue of April 8 last The Outlook said:

"The editors of The Outlook believe that Schedule K, or what is popularly known as the Woolen Schedule, of the Payne Tariff Law is open to very serious criticism. It believes with President Taft that Schedule K needs careful revision. It has constantly and consistently advocated the policy of revising the tariff schedule by schedule in order that such a schedule as Schedule K may be discussed throughout the country and in Congress by itself. It does not believe that Schedule K in its present form has contributed to the general welfare of the country, and it doubts whether it has contributed to the general welfare of the woolen industry."

The Outlook has seen no reason to modify the opinion then expressed. We believe that the tariff ought to be revised.

And it ought to be revised schedule by schedule. In no other way can justice be done to the interests of all the people. Hitherto the tariff has been revised in each instance only by a general tariff bill. The attention of the country has been divided among a great number of confusing schedules. Such was the case, for instance, two years ago. Each industry that wanted a high rate of duty on its own products got the aid of other

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industries that wanted similar rates on their products, and the combined influence of these different industries was greater than the influence on behalf of the confused and mystified public; and the bill was framed to satisfy as many as possible of these influential industries. Then, when the bill was passed, there was no way of remedying any one glaring evil without the sacrifice of all the incidental benefits in other parts of the bill. Even during the passage of the bill an attack upon Schedule K would bring to its defense, not only the beneficiaries of that schedule, but also the beneficiaries of other schedules who had thrown in their lot with them. The only way to get at this cause for exorbitant tariff rates is by taking up the tariff one schedule at a time. In this way each interest that wishes to get privilege at the expense of the public is isolated, and has to stand up and face the country alone. The issue, which before was confused, under such circumstances becomes comparatively simple. Under a general tariff revision, the woolen people can think solely about wool; but the people have to think, not only about wool, but also about lumber, and paper, and cotton, and paintings, and lemons, and scores of other things, with the consequence that they cannot think much about anything, and become irritated and wish the whole affair over with. Under the plan of taking up the tariff schedule by schedule, the woolen people think about wool, and the people think about wool, and the consequence is that the private interest has no such great advantage over the public interest.

The country as a whole is convinced that this schedule-by-schedule method is the right method for tariff legislation. It is the method recommended by President Taft, and it is the method, much to their credit, which in this bill has been adopted by the Democratic majority in the House of Representatives. It is the method the country approves, without regard to party.

We also believe that the revision should be "careful," and by that we mean that care should be taken so to revise the schedule as to make the least possible disturbance in the wool industry consistent with the protection of the rights of the consumer; to bring the least possible injury to the five millions directly interested in the wool industry, while providing for the health and comfort of the ninety millions who use woolen goods. We have thought, and still think, that the plan of revision based on careful preparation of data by a non-partisan commission of experts is a wiser, even if a slower, method of revision than one based on the report of a Congressional Committee or the vote of a party caucus.

Such a Commission is now in existence. It has announced that its report will be ready on December 1 next. It is true that the object of this Commission is to ascertain the difference between labor cost of production in this and that in other countries as a basis for a protective tariff, and that the Democratic party is not in favor of a protective tariff. But we may safely assume that it is not in favor of a destructive tariff. And Congress ought to be, and probably would be, better prepared to frame a revision of Schedule K that would not be destructive to the wool industry after receiving the report of the Commission than it is now. That the Commission plan may be applicable to the Democratic as well as to the Republican theory of tariff revision is indicated by the fact that a Democrat, Mr. Littleton, has introduced a bill for a permanent non-partisan Tariff Commission. It must in fairness be added that the Republican leaders in Congress have themselves to thank for the fact that the country, distrustful of their sincerity and impatient of their methods, dismissed their party from control of the House of Representatives and put the Democratic party in power charged with the duty of revising the tariff; and those leaders have no cause to criticise the Democratic caucus for not consenting to a further delay of six months in order to receive the report of a Commission which the Republican party has created.

For the Wool Bill now introduced, the Democratic party in Congress, under the leadership of Mr. Underwood, deserves high praise; first, because it is a brave and unqualified abandonment of the old scrambling method of revising the tariff, and a substitution of revision by schedule; and, second, because it is an honest attempt to discard the Republican principle of protection and to apply the Cleveland-Democratic principle of reducing cost

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to the consumer and maintaining the revenues of the Government.

If the Democratic party sustains this action of the Democratic caucus, with or without adding the Commission feature, and the Republican party, as represented in the Senate, adheres to the Commission idea as a means of securing protection to American industry on a scientific basis, the country will have next year an opportunity, such as it has not before had for many a day, to vote on the simple issue between a tariff for protection and a tariff for revenue only. This is the clean-cut issue between the parties, which we have said in our opening paragraph is greatly to be desired.

MR. GOMPERS, GENERAL OTIS, AND THE DYNAMITE CHARGES

In an article in The Outlook of May 6 on the dynamite outrage which, it is charged, was perpetrated against the Los Angeles "Times," I called attention to the fact that certain labor men had tried to create a public opinion in favor of those arrested simply because the crime was committed against a capitalist, and because the men charged with committing it were members of a labor union. I urged that we should all, as good citizens, confine ourselves simply to trying to secure a just and fair trial, so that no innocent man might suffer and that every guilty man might be punished. The Los Angeles "Daily Times," edited by General Harrison Gray Otis, has published an editorial on the article in question, presumably written by General Otis, and for which, at all events, he assumes editorial responsibility; and Mr. Gompers has quoted the article in full and written a long editorial on it in the "American Federationist," the official magazine of the American Federation of Labor, a magazine published in the interests of the trade union movement. These two articles offer an instructive contrast, to which I am all the more glad to call attention because I do not agree with Mr. Gompers as to the need of writing the article which I did write. One sentence of my article in The Outlook ran as follows:

> If the explosion was not an accident, but the deliberate act of any man or men, it was an outrage of dastardly iniquity, for it was one of those crimes in which the murderer, in order to gratify his spite against an individual, not merely wrecks that individual's property, but with callous indifference takes the lives of scores of innocent people as an incident to the achievement of his sinister and criminal purpose.

On this General Otis, after stating that in this article the writer (myself) had "endeavored to make himself solid with the labor unions, but has only succeeded in provoking a roar of anger from them, all the way from Gompers to Tvietmoe," comments as follows:

> "If" the "Times" Building was dynamited, says Mr. Facing Both Ways, then those who did the work should be punished. The labor unionites are angered at this suggestion, because they do not want the dynamiters punished even IF they are guilty; and the "Times" . . . feels that the "if" is an upholding of the cause of disorder, and a distinct aid to the villains who incited and procured the murder of twenty innocent men and the destruction of $500,000 worth of property.

General Otis in this article thus takes the very position against which all good citizens should protest when taken by the labor men. That is, the purpose of my article was to protest against assuming before the trial what it was hoped to prove or disprove at the trial; and in this way General Otis is guilty of conduct which could not be too severely denounced if the offender were a labor leader, and which therefore cannot be too severely denounced when the offender is a violent opponent of organized labor and a consistent enemy of every movement for social and economic betterment—just as he has shown himself the consistent enemy of the men in California who have dared resolutely to stand against corruption and in favor of honesty.

The article by Mr. Gompers in the "American Federationist" offers the most striking contrast, in tone and temper, to the article of General Otis. Mr. Gompers's editorial is an article of the type which any magazine should be glad to have appear in its columns. It is a fair and honorable statement of a position with which I only in part disagree, couched in language which warrants respectful and careful attention. On the point that General Otis raises, *i.e.*, his own contention that the building was dynamited, Mr. Gompers takes the opposite side. In

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my article I confined myself to stating what was the rightful path to follow *if* it proved that the building had been dynamited, and *if* any labor union man were implicated in the crime; this is the only right way to look at the matter. After reading Mr. Gompers's article carefully, I still feel that at least some of the labor men so framed their statements about the explosion as to convey the impression—and, I fear, to excite the feeling among their followers—that this matter was to be treated as a case of class conflict, and that the labor men were to rally behind the accused as a matter of class duty and loyalty. It is due to the labor men to say, however, that Mr. Gompers shows in this article that certain of the capitalist newspapers of the stamp of that owned by General Otis have been responsible for far more brutal utterances than can be attributed to any recognized labor leader. The attitude of General Otis in his paper affords a curious instance of the anarchy of soul which comes to the man who in conscienceless fashion deifies property at the expense of human rights—no less surely than it comes to the man who in the name of human rights wars upon all men of property, good or bad.

In concluding a noteworthy article, Mr. Gompers writes as follows:

> We could well wish that Mr. Roosevelt might devote some little time to reading current trade union literature in order to ascertain real union sentiment. . . . We should like him to read, for a time at least, the leading publications of the trade-unionists. He will not find in them the harsh words which disclose a virulent spirit toward the opposing side. We would be most willing to place a file for the last year of these magazines in his hands and have him candidly express its effect upon him. We give no space to inflammatory teachings. We try to bring the faculty of common sense to bear on all matters with which we deal. We have no room in this magazine for vituperation, heated denunciation, or groundless accusations. We do try, of course, to tell the truth plainly and to lay claim to all of labor's rights fearlessly.

This is an honorable invitation expressed in an honorable way, and I shall certainly take advantage of it. Now, let me answer directly the questions he puts to me, implicitly rather than explicitly, in this article. Mr. Gompers says that the trade-unionists only wish a fair trial. That is all I wish. Let us find out who is guilty and who is innocent. I said in my article that it was entirely proper to provide money to secure such a trial. Mr. Gompers claims that illegal and improper action has been taken in kidnapping the men. That is a matter which can be settled only through the courts, and I shall welcome any effort that is made thus to settle it. Now let me most earnestly ask Mr. Gompers and those associated with him in the cause of labor—a cause of which I hope I may say I am a very earnest and sincere friend—that they, in their turn, make it equally evident that they do not intend to stand by the men right or wrong, that they wish them to have an absolutely fair chance to prove their innocence, but that they will join with every other citizen in hearty condemnation of them, and will endeavor to bring them to punishment, if they are guilty. No feeling of hostility to the Los Angeles "Times" must be allowed to interfere with this. It may be quite true that the Los Angeles "Times" has again and again shown itself to be as much an enemy of good citizenship, of honest and decent government, and of every effective effort to secure fair play for working men and women, as any Anarchist sheet could show itself to be. But that has nothing to do with the question. If, instead of the newspaper of General Otis, it was the newspaper of the late Herr Most, I should strive just as hard to bring to punishment the murderers, whoever they might be; if the paper dynamited had been a Socialist paper in Milwaukee, I should strive just as hard to bring to justice the wrongdoers as now when the paper dynamited happens to be a capitalist newspaper in Los Angeles. I ask merely that all good citizens, whether wage-workers or not, shall take the same view. Mr. Gompers must remember that I have seen a good many of these things from the inside. I spent much of my time in Montana when the Western Federation of Miners was in its heyday of wrongdoing there and in Idaho, and I felt that the labor leaders did grave injustice to themselves, and furnished capital to the most violent and unscrupulous enemies of labor, by their failure to denounce the general attitude and some of the specific deeds of the Western Federation—and to

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show this attitude and the character of these deeds I refer to the official Government reports of the investigation made while I was President. Too many labor men adopted toward the responsible leaders of the Western Federation just the attitude that certain capitalistic papers controlled by Wall Street adopt toward the great trusts which are known to do grave wrong but which just keep clear of the clutch of the law. I shall always protest against accepting "law honesty" as warrant enough for supporting a business man or politician, and the ability to escape conviction for murder as warrant enough for upholding a labor leader when the outside circumstances are such as conclusively to show that either the politician, the capitalist, or the labor leader is an undesirable citizen.

Mr. Gompers and those associated with him are taking the lead in a great movement which may be made and I believe will be made a movement for incalculable good. My desire is to co-operate with them and help them in every way, and I very earnestly hope that they will steadily so conduct themselves as to make it not merely the duty but the privilege of all decent citizens thus to co-operate with them.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

JUSTICE, NOT SENTIMENTALITY

President Taft has done a wise and brave thing in refusing to pardon Charles W. Morse and John R. Walsh, convicted of bank-wrecking and imprisoned for long terms of years. The pressure brought to bear on an Executive in these cases is often of a kind which is very difficult to resist. To a man of kind heart comes the appeal of a devoted wife whose tireless effort to free her husband can be successfully met only by a clear-sighted and courageous devotion to the welfare of the State. Against the passionate appeal of one wife and mother must be set the happiness of many other wives and mothers whose husbands and sons need the sustaining support of a rigidly enforced law to keep them in the way of rectitude. In the case of a man who uses the resources of a bank to further his own speculative interests there are no extenuating circumstances. A young man who, in a moment of sudden temptation, uses funds which are not his own but which he intends to replace has some claim to sympathy; but an experienced man of affairs, who knows precisely what he is about when he turns the contents of the vaults of a bank into his pockets and stakes them on a speculation, is a dishonest gambler.

By a curious confusion of ideas, the fact that a man has been respectable seems to many people to palliate his offense; as a matter of fact, it makes it more heinous. The man who uses an honorable position or a good reputation to secure command of other people's property is a far more dangerous offender than the professional swindler, and his punishment ought to be far more severe. It is pitiful that the shame of his deed should fall on his innocent wife and children; but that is the awful tragedy of sin, and every man of average intelligence knows that he is imperiling the happiness of those nearest him when he breaks the law. And why do people never think of the wives and children of the men whom he impoverishes? There is, moreover, a most mischievous fallacy in the idea that because a man has lived in luxury he ought to be spared the privations of prison life. It is this false sentimentality about the rich man when he goes to jail which has given ground for the impression that only the poor are punished; that money opens prison doors and modifies prison discipline. Wealth, like good reputation, instead of lessening punishment, ought to make it heavier, for wealth and position increase the culprit's criminality.

Every normal human being shrinks from the sight of moral deformity and from the thought of the sufferings which these offenses bring in their train; but love and pity are not behind the relaxed law and its wavering execution; weakness and blindness are behind the easy-going administration of justice. The divine quality of love which cares chiefly for the health and happiness of a child, and spares no moral surgery to secure these things, is relentless in the exact degree in which it is clear-sighted and self-denying.

President Taft is a man of heart, but

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he is also a man of sound legal training, and his statement of his reasons for refusing the appeal for clemency are well put:

Many influential and prominent persons have petitioned for his pardon. They do not fully appreciate, it seems to me, the high importance to society that such criminal breaches of trust as this be severely punished. Such breaches sometimes escape punishment because the misuse of the funds results in a profit. In such cases the dishonest or reckless bank officer takes the profit and the bank is made whole and no one is the wiser. Then the officer comes to regard himself as a shrewd manipulator within legitimate business lines. The truth is that in the mad rush for wealth in the last few decades the lines between profit from legitimate business and improper gain from undue use of trust control over other people's property and money have sometimes been dimmed, and the interest of society requires that whenever opportunity offers those charged with the enforcement of the law should emphasize the distinction between honest business and dishonest breaches of trust.

President Taft in his refusal to pardon these men has emphasized the truth that it is as necessary for a nation as for an individual to preserve in its conduct its sense of moral distinctions.

A BRIBE TO THE PRESS

The Advertisers' Protective Association defines itself in the following terms:

This Association is composed of manufacturers of foods, beverages, and drugs, representing an investment of $400,000,000, whose advertising expenses are annually over $100,000,000. Its objects are mutual protection against unjust, unwarranted, and malicious assaults by Legislatures, Executive Officers, and Government Bureaus.

What an oppressive government is ours, in which the innocent manufacturers of foods, beverages, and drugs are compelled to organize to protect themselves against its malice—a malice which pervades alike all departments, legislative, executive, and administrative! And what a profitable business is this of manufacturing foods, beverages, and medicines, so profitable that the manufacturers can afford to expend every year one-quarter of their entire capital in advertising their wares! One wonders how much is put into their much-advertised wares, and how much is extracted from the pockets of a public induced by their advertisements to buy these wares.

This Advertisers' Protective Association has addressed a circular to the American press. We extract from this circular two paragraphs:

New York City, May 25, 1911.

Dear Mr. Editor:

During the past five years the Bureau of Chemistry of the Department of Agriculture has made a number of very vicious and uncalled-for assaults on foods, beverages, and drugs, greatly to their injury, as well as damaging to the Press which has been carrying the advertising contracts in these lines. Many publications have, no doubt, felt the effect of these assaults by a reduction in amount of advertising patronage from the manufacturers of foods, beverages, and patent medicines. We are, therefore, presenting the following facts, to show why the earning power of your publication has been, or will be, diminished in these lines, unless these attacks are stopped.

The Advertisers' Protective Association honored The Outlook by not sending to it this circular—an honor we highly appreciate. It is the frankest attempt we remember ever to have seen to bribe the American press to be silent about a matter which vitally concerns the well-being of every American home and the health and even the lives of the American people. Will the attempt succeed? In some quarters, yes. But we are of opinion that the shamelessness of the attempt will generally serve to defeat it. America has not yet come to a pass in which bribes can be offered and received in the open market and in view of all the public.

The circular proceeds to ask a question:

If this condition of affairs is not changed, it will result in greatly cutting down the support you receive from the manufacturers of almost numberless Foods, Beverages, and Proprietary or Patent Medicines, and the question presents itself: Will you and your paper stand for such a condition?

The Outlook answers, Yes! We will, and do, stand for such a condition. We rejoice to be assured that the Pure Food Law has so seriously cut down the sale of foods, beverages, and proprietary or patent medicines sold by a combination whose draft on the public purse is indicated by the fact that it can afford to expend every year a quarter of its capital in advertising its wares, and whose moral standard is indicated by the fact that it openly seeks to buy the support of the American press by sharing with the press its profits.

It is due to the manufacturers of foods,

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beverages, and proprietary or patent medicines to say that they are not all in the Advertisers' Protective Association. Some of them are in the Association for Promotion of Purity in Foods. These not only welcomed the Pure Food Law, but they also continue to welcome the scrutiny of their foods, beverages, and medicines by the Government. They see no malice in this endeavor by the Government to protect its citizens from injurious, adulterated, or even valueless foods, beverages, and medicines. They show their faith in the purity of their products by inviting the most exacting scrutiny. It is the duty of government not only to protect property from thieves and persons from assault, but no less to protect health and life from foods, beverages, and medicines injurious to health. The individual cannot test them for himself; he must trust his government to test them for him. The more exacting and thorough the test, the better for the people.

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION

We print on another page a letter by Rear-Admiral Mahan correcting a misrepresentation f Mr. Roosevelt's views on international arbitration. They are also the views of The Outlook. We accompany that letter with a restatement of those views; not for the purpose of defending either Mr. Roosevelt or The Outlook, but for the purpose of making clear an important subject which has been befogged, partly by partisan prejudice, partly by unthoughtful sentimentalism.

We do not criticise the proposed Arbitration Treaty; for no one knows what it will be except those who are drafting it. We do not criticise Mr. Taft's proposals; for no intelligent person supposes that he would expect to use in a treaty between two great nations the same language which he would freely use in an after-dinner speech.

An international arbitration treaty should not in terms except from arbitration vital interests, national honor, independence, territorial integrity, and the like. For these phrases are capable of an endless variety of interpretation, and a treaty with these exceptions, while valuable as an expression of good will and a desire for peaceful settlement of all disputes, is ineffective as a preventive of war. It should not in terms include vital interests, national honor, independence, territorial integrity, and the like, because this would be insincere; it would not say what the contracting parties mean; and it is always wise policy, because it is always honest policy, to say what we mean and mean what we say. America would not mean that if Great Britain should renew her claims to impress our seamen into her service or to take part of the original colonies back into a position of colonial dependence—Maine, for example—we would submit that question to arbitration. It is said that it is preposterous to suppose that she would make such a claim. That is unquestionably true. Therefore we do not need to except such subjects from the treaty; therefore, also, we ought not to include such subjects in the treaty. What America really means is, not that she would submit such questions to arbitration if they should arise, but that we have such faith in Great Britain that we are sure they will not arise. That is what America means; therefore that is what America should say. One way of saying it is quite simple and has been pointed out by Mr. Bartholdt. It is to state in the preamble to the treaty that the contracting nations recognize each other's vital interests, national honor, independence, and territorial integrity, and on that mutual recognition base their agreement to refer all questions that may arise between them to arbitration.

Exact honesty is always the best policy. There is a special reason why it is the best policy in this case. It is of prime importance that any treaty negotiated between Great Britain and the United States should not be unique, but should be a model to be followed by like treaties with other nations. To make a treaty with Great Britain which she is not willing to make with Germany, and which the United States is not willing to make with Japan, is not to promote international peace but to provoke international hostility. The mere suggestion of an all-inclusive treaty of arbitration with Great Britain has already created suspicion in Germany of an Anglo-American alliance against the world. It has created similar

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suspicion in this country, and consequently aroused opposition to the treaty from some Irish-Americans and German-Americans. It easily may create a similar suspicion in Japan, if it has not already done so. The remedy for these suspicions is a treaty so framed that both nations could sincerely offer it to all other civilized nations. No one thinks of a war between England and the United States. But many have thought of war between England and Germany, and some have thought of war between Japan and the United States. To make a treaty with Great Britain that we would not make with Japan, or that Great Britain would not make with Germany, would be to attempt to reduce the danger of a war which no one thinks dangerous, and add to the danger of a war that many have thought dangerous. To make a treaty with Great Britain that we could sincerely offer to Japan, and that Great Britain could sincerely offer to Germany, would be to use an established good will with one nation as a means of establishing a surer basis for good will with another nation. Such a treaty should contain neither exceptions nor inclusions phrased in language capable of a double construction, and therefore capable of giving rise to controversies. It should be based on mutual confidence in the respect which each has for the other's sovereign rights and obligations, a confidence which might well be expressed in the treaty as the foundation of its agreements.

This editorial may be regarded by our readers as an authoritative statement of the views not only of The Outlook but also of Mr. Roosevelt.

THE SPECTATOR

The Spectator sat in the seat of honor in the old white-paneled, green-rep-cushioned pew (on casters). It had been rolled to one side of the high carved pulpit, with its Corinthian pillars at the bottom and its massive hanging, white-paneled sounding-board. A sea of heads, braided and beribboned or close-cropped and sleek, undulated in every direction—undulated literally, for their youthful owners could not keep them still very long on this occasion, when there was so much to see and hear. When a boy or a girl in the public schools of Boston is chosen to go to the Old South for the Children's Hour, which happens only twice a year, that boy or girl naturally wants to do full justice to the occasion, and not miss anything.

Up in the first of the big white galleries the orchestra was playing away at top speed. Some of it was little girls with big white ribbon bows over each ear tying up neatly braided hair; some of it was boys of assorted sizes; all of it played enthusiastically, though the conductor was hidden by the big picture of George Washington on a white horse galloping, apparently, toward Washington Street, which stood up high from the gallery railing just opposite the pulpit, and screened the orchestra somewhat. Over at the side of the gallery, standing very stiff and straight, was a stalwart young policeman, representing the majesty of the law in those parts. Downstairs, back of the children, stood another sentinel policeman. They looked imposing; but, for all that, there were snickers up in the high white upper gallery, perched on insecurely slender white Corinthian columns, where the colored people of the congregation used to sit in ante-abolition days. Some of the boys had slyly stolen up the outside stair and, though lost to sight, were none the less occasionally in evidence. But, since it was the Children's Hour, what great matter did it make?

Twice a year the Old South welcomes the children, giving them music and an interesting talk of some kind. At first blush, however, a talk on the Custom-House seemed to promise little. The naval officer who gave it was not in uniform, and the boys in front of the Spectator's pew looked rather blank when he arose. But he was a man who knew how to interest boys—no other kind of speaker need apply for the Children's Hour—and he soon had his audience with him, as he told them how the Government was supported, as to one-half its expenses, by the customs, and how the customs taxes were connected with Revolutionary history. He explained how, in the early days, New England, on account of its fast days, ate

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fish three times a week or so, and how the fisheries flourished, and Boston was the biggest port in the colonies. Then he traced the quarrels between the colonies about fishing and harbor boundaries and dues, and showed how the meeting called by Washington at Mount Vernon between the Maryland and Virginia men, to settle disputes in Chesapeake Bay, was extended to bring in Delaware and Pennsylvania as to Delaware Bay, and Ohio as to the Potomac head-waters, and so laid the foundation for uniting all the colonies a little later in the Constitutional Convention which framed the Constitution. From the codfish to the Constitution the children followed with attention, and then, when the speaker began to tell them stories of the port, of smuggling, and of the great ships of to-day, they were as quiet as mice.

They were good enough not to be true, those plain tales from the wharf. There was the distinguished Englishwoman who, when offered "the courtesy of the port," thanked the officer, but said she had already been vaccinated. There were the three ladies who, on a hot July day, "when mosquito-netting would have been a heavy wrap," thought to evade the duty on sealskin by coming ashore in long fur coats, which they kept on for two hours while their baggage was being examined—and all for naught! There was the smuggler who brought in barrels of "oats" which were only a few inches of oats over a barrelful of crude opium, and who, after being detected and undergoing great anguish of mind, found that crude opium was not dutiable, and that all his stratagem had been but a waste of energy. Two "conscience letters" were read, one being from a man whose wife had once, long years before, given him a diamond pin "worth from five to fifteen dollars." He understood that she had paid no duty on it, but was not sure. He had no money to pay duty with, and his wife was dead. But, having become a Christian, he wished to pay tribute to whom tribute was due. The Custom-House, however, found the case too complicated to pursue further.

The children listened with fascinated attention to the list of queer imports that come in at times—skulls and articulated skeletons, heathen gods, eggs preserved in mud, mummies, salted cherry-blossoms, snakes in alcohol, dried lizards stretched on frames, a two-headed calf (stuffed), relics of the saints and pieces of the true cross, sharks' fins, dried ducks' legs and gizzards, and paper clothing to burn at Chinese funerals. This last commodity, it appears, has puzzled the Custom-House not a little. Is it ready-made clothing or not? If it is, the tax is sixty-five per cent; if not, the importer pays only twenty-five per cent. As only the departed spirit can wear them, and it cannot be summoned to testify, the paper garments are at present allowed to come in at the lower figure.

After some alluring computations as to how the cargo of a modern freighter, laid out on the ground, would cover thirty acres, or make a line two hundred and thirteen miles long, the speaker ended by suggesting ships a mile long in future centuries, run by wireless energy. As the Old South is a place of prophecy, the boys received this with applause, and then the youthful audience stood up and sang "My Country, 'tis of Thee" with all their might as a closing number. After that they scattered, only to gather again in groups around the treasured curios of the old meeting-house. They flattened their noses against the glass case of the model and relief map of Boston in 1775, with its miniature houses and Common. They looked at the original tea, some of it, preserved in a bottle ever since the Boston Tea Party. They gazed at the Indian pestles and mortars, the cannon-balls and cocked hats, the manuscripts and samplers, the maps and prints, the calashes and side-saddles, the spinning-wheels and corner cupboards, and quilts, and brocade, and clocks, and seals, and the double row of portraits hung beneath the galleries. And when they finally trooped away, each held, tightly clasped, the flag-bedecked programme with the "Star-Spangled Banner" printed on it. Surely the shades of Otis and Revere, of Adams and Warren and Hancock, must rejoice each Children's Hour to see the little citizens come and go, with smiling morning faces, in this time-honored sanctuary of liberty.

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THE MASTER BUILDER[1]

"As he is, so are we in this world"

BY LYMAN ABBOTT

HIS BIRTH AND EDUCATION

TWO genealogies of Jesus of Nazareth, differing from each other, are given in the Gospel biographies. Which of these two is accurate, or whether either is accurate, is not with certainty known, but in neither of them do we find the name of any one of the great prophets of Israel, or of any one of the great reforming kings. Neither in his reported ancestry nor in his reported parents, who were of the peasant class, is there any hint of the coming greatness of the Master. His father was a pious, God-fearing peasant, a carpenter in an age when mechanical pursuits required little more for success than purely mechanical skill, a timid man with apparently no impressive personality. In future times the people scoffed at the notion that this Jesus could be a great rabbi, since he was the son of so commonplace a carpenter. His mother was a woman of rare courage, and of considerable literary culture for one in her position. We have an account of one journey which she made unattended, from Galilee to Judea, a dangerous expedition for a woman in those days; we have one Psalm attributed to her, a Psalm which shows that she had read and re-read the prophetic Scriptures until their spirit had animated her own. There is reason to believe that her husband died and left her a widow some time before the public ministry of Jesus began, and there is no hint in the story of any feebleness or faintness under the burden of her varied sorrows. The wonderful courage of a great womanhood—and no courage on the battlefield equals it—has never received more striking illustration than in the picture of Mary standing steadfast by the cross, looking on with broken heart, and not going away until her son had breathed his last gasp. Reverence, seeking for an ideal of womanhood to venerate, has made a wise selection in choosing her. Still, there is not in the boy's parents, any more than in his ancestry, an explanation, or even a hint, of his coming greatness.

The environment of his boyhood was uninspiring, and his education was simple and humble. The house in which he lived was probably built of sun-dried brick and thatched with straw, and contained but a single room, which served for kitchen, parlor, bedroom, sitting-room, and workshop. Here the father, and the boy growing to manhood, worked together at the bench. There was neither chimney nor glass window in the room. The light came in through the door, or through a little slit in the wall so narrow as to exclude the driving rain; only in the houses of the rich was there a lattice shutter to exclude the storm. In fair weather cooking was done outside the house at a sort of camp-fire; otherwise within, and the family endured the smoke as well as they could. But in the warm climate of Palestine, and in the homes of the poor, there was little occasion for cooking. Art and literature were unknown. To the law, "Thou shalt not make unto thee any graven image, or any likeness of anything that is in heaven above, or that is in the earth beneath, or that is in the water under the earth," the orthodox Jews gave a literal interpretation, as the Arabs do to this day. Neither statue nor picture was permitted. Even had it been otherwise, this poor peasant family could not have purchased art of any description. As to literature, the works of the Greeks and Romans were probably looked upon by this pious peasant and his wife with a prejudice more intense than that with which the Puritans of the eighteenth

[1] In this series of articles use is made of a course of sermons on the life of Christ delivered in Plymouth Church pulpit, and reported in the "Christian World Pulpit," of London, in 1889. They are based on the four Gospels, which I regard as authentic biographies; and no attempt is made to discriminate between them as historical documents or to utilize the efforts which modern scholars have made to distinguish the sources from which they suppose these Gospels were composed. The object of these articles is practical, not scholastic. The Fourth Gospel, after considerable study of the question, I believe to have been written by the Apostle John, or by one or more of his immediate disciples, acting as amanuensis or interpreter, and as probably dating from the close of the first century or, at the very latest, from the first decade of the second century.

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century regarded the infidel literature of France. Probably the family had one or two books of the Old Testament Scriptures in a roll, but this is not certain. It is not even certain that they could have read the roll had they possessed it; and it is doubtful whether there was light in the room sufficient for the reading if they had known how to read. When Jesus, in after times, said, "Neither do men light a candle, and put it under a bushel, but on a candlestick," he doubtless drew the figure from his own childhood, for he had often seen his father turn the bushel upside down to serve as a kind of table on which to put the smoking lamp. When he talked of a woman lighting a candle to sweep the floor in searching for the lost coin, he recalled the dimness in his peasant home by day as well as by night.

We may be pretty sure that the boy was taught at home by his pious mother from the Hebrew Scriptures, one text at a time, and probably taught to read from some fragment of the Law which the devout mother had been able to secure. With many of the synagogues a school was connected, which in the smaller towns was taught by the master of the synagogue, in the larger towns by a master especially appointed. Probably Jesus attended such a school as this. If so, we may be very sure that all he learned of history was the history of Israel; all that he learned of geography was the geography of his native land; all that he learned of natural science was such as can be gathered from the Psalms and the Proverbs; all that he learned of literature was to be found in the poems, dramas, and fiction contained in the Old Testament; and that the burden of the teaching given to him was the Law of Israel, and the interpretation of that Law as furnished by the Hebrew rabbis. There is little reason to think that he ever learned to write.[1] The writing in that age was largely done by professional scribes, who would write a letter at the request of any applicant for a very small payment. Arithmetic, except in its simplest forms, was to him an unknown branch of knowledge.

[1] The only reference to his writing furnished by the Gospels is John viii. 6, 8, which is hardly evidence of any such facility in writing as would be furnished by a school.

How eager he was for instruction is indicated by the one incident in his boyhood which has been preserved for us. He went up with his parents to Jerusalem. In connection with the Temple was a great university. The boy of twelve years of age strayed away from his parents to this university, not, as has been sometimes imagined, to instruct its professors, but to ply them with questions which his synagogue rabbi had not been able to answer. We can guess from his subsequent teaching, when we compare it with the traditional teaching current in his time, what was the nature of those questions. Nor is it difficult to comprehend his naïve surprise when his mother reproached him, saying, "Behold, thy father and I have sought thee sorrowing." He could not understand why they should not at once have realized that he would have been at the university of the Holy City trying to learn about his Father's business what his mother and his village rabbi had not been able to teach him.

But three teachers he had to whom he diligently listened: nature, the Bible, and his own soul.

His life was largely spent out of doors. Later, he was accustomed to wrap his shawl or cloak about him and lie down upon the grass, with the blue sky above him his only canopy. We may well believe that this was his custom in his earlier life; that he did not first make the hills his refuge after he had begun his public ministry, but that they were already familiar resorts to him. His teaching makes the habit of his life clear: the habit of an observing eye and a meditating spirit. In one of the pictured windows of the Central Congregational Church of Boston, Jesus, as a boy, is portrayed looking upon the sparrow dead upon the grass at his feet. The artist is a true interpreter. It was in his boyhood that he learned that "not a sparrow falleth to the ground without my Father;" that some seeds grew, falling in fertile soil, while the birds carried other seeds away; that some were choked and hindered by the tares in which they grew; with what painstaking the husbandman endeavored to bring back to life the fruitless tree, and how readily he hewed it to the ground when it bore no fruit; how the lilies of the field grew, surpassing

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the glory of Solomon. That he ever knew the scientific use of nature in material service there is no indication, but nature was to him a book written in symbolic language, and he learned to read it with reverent attention.

His spiritual faith in the two great tenets of Judaism, the Fatherhood of God and the Brotherhood of man, makes it clear that he had imbibed the spirit of the Old Testament. His frequent quotations from it make it clear that he was familiar with its words. In all ages of the world it may be questioned whether commentators have not done as much to obscure as to interpret the Scriptures. Jesus pushed away the obscuration which the scribes had spun over the simple message of the prophets, the traditions with which they had made of none effect the law of God. The Old Testament in Christ's time, as sometimes since, was like an ancient palimpsest on which over the valuable original text a later scribe has written valueless reflections of his own. Jesus erased these valueless reflections, and read with keen spiritual vision the original writing.

And he had what modern life denies to most children of the peasant class—leisure. "In the East," says Edmond Stapfer, "poverty is almost unknown; compulsory labor and the struggle for life are still more rare. Food and clothing suffice. Men have no extraordinary needs, and the easy conditions of life allow ample leisure to all. The Jew of the first century, like the Arab of to-day, passed long hours of every day in contemplation; and when he had worked a little at his trade and performed his religious duties, he could rest and meditate at his ease."[1] Whether poverty is an advantage or a disadvantage, whether it elevates or degrades, whether it leads to virtue or to vice, depends on the use which is made of it. Not in vain had Jesus read in the old Hebrew Psalms the words, "Be still, and know that I am God." In these hours of quiet and unharassing meditation he heard in his own soul that voice which is better and clearer than the confused and enigmatical voices of nature, which is more inspiring even than the echoes of that inward monitor as they are recorded in the sacred pages of Scripture.

[1] "Palestine in the Time of Christ," p. 145.

There are three elements that go to make up character: heredity, education, and that innate force which we sometimes call genius. "Only the lower natures," says Henry Ward Beecher, "are formed by external circumstances. Great natures are freely developed by forces from within." That force from within we sometimes call genius, we sometimes call inspiration, we sometimes call divinity; but, whatever we call it, it is from within, working out, not from without working on that which is within. The greatness of the Master cannot be attributed to ancestry or to education—that is, to his heredity or to his environment; it must be attributed to that sacred force, greater than either heredity or environment, in which we all live, and move, and have our being, but to which we do not all open our souls that we may receive its influence or all yield our wills that we may obey its directions. Jesus was not produced by his age, but was himself a producer of the ages: strong because he was strong in spirit and because he was obedient to the divine calling.

"The true Shekinah is Man," says St. Chrysostom. "The essence of our being," says Carlyle, after quoting St. Chrysostom, "the mystery in us that calls itself 'I'—ah, what words have we for such things?—is a breath of Heaven; the Highest Being reveals himself in man. . . . *We* are the miracle of miracles—the great inscrutable mystery of God. We cannot understand it, we know not how to speak of it; but we may feel and know, if we like, that it is verily so."[1] This truth lies at the threshold of our fragmentary studies in the life of the Master. Every man, however humble his origin, however inadequate his education, however poverty-stricken his environment, can still be great, not perhaps in the extent of his influence, not in the largeness of his power, not in a widely extended reputation, but in all that makes true character—the divineness of his life. He can become so by accepting the teaching, adopting the principles, and imbibing the spirit of the Master Builder. It is this faith which leads me in this series of articles to put before the readers of The Outlook these fragmentary and imperfect sketches.

[1] Thomas Carlyle, "Heroes and Hero-Worship," pp. 9, 10.

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THE PREVENTION OF FIRES

BY KATHARINE C. BUDD

HOW many of us are in any way prepared for fire? Of course every one is insured; but beyond that, what? Do the members of our household know what to do in an emergency? Have we appliances for the prompt extinguishing of a blazing curtain or an overturned lamp? We read in the morning paper an account of the destruction of a house similar to our own. Do we take warning and at once provide proper safeguards? Not often. Time slips away, fire comes, licks up our worldly goods, our priceless souvenirs, perhaps precious lives as well. One laughs at volunteer firemen who chop fine furniture to pieces and throw the grand piano out of the window, while they carry the mattresses carefully down the stairs. But are they more foolish than that husband and father who neglects simple precautions against fire in his own home?

Four or five years ago, when a private house, with several of its inmates, was utterly destroyed, a wise old fire chief gave the frightened neighbors some good advice, which he recommended them to have copied and hung where all could read. Here are some of his rules, much condensed, with others of equal importance:

Be calm and cool; even if every one else is excited, you need not rush around adding to the confusion.

When fire breaks out, without an instant's delay call up the firemen. Do not take it for granted that some one else has done so; give the alarm yourself.

Then fight that fire with all your might. Those first fifteen minutes before the firemen get to work are precious. Perhaps you can stop it yourself; if you waste time waiting for the engines, the flames may get ahead of you.

Set everybody to work smothering the blaze with woolen blankets and rugs, beating it out with wet brooms, throwing on water or sand. Use extinguishers if you are lucky enough to own them. Keep up your courage and work with a will. Remember that most fires can be put out if taken in time.

Try to block the fire in the place where it started. Shut windows and doors; cut off the supply of oxygen. When a fire has exhausted the oxygen, it will smolder and not blaze up.

Do not open the scuttle, or any windows on the top floor. An opening there makes a fine flue, creating the very draught you are anxious to avoid.

Keep away from the upper story altogether, if possible. The smoke and hot fumes collect at the top of the house, making that the most dangerous place.

Remember that fire generally rushes rapidly to the roof by means of the open halls and stairways; then, more slowly, it descends, eating into the rooms right and left. The lowest floors, therefore, are the safest until they are actually in flames.

The halls will probably be thick with smoke in a few minutes; keep out of them if you can; take refuge in the lowest room you can reach (if unable to leave the building); close the doors and transoms; when the air gets too bad, hold your head out of the window; have all your wits about you, and be careful not to breathe the smoke.

Wait till help comes if you can. If it gets too hot and you are obliged to leave, cover your mouth with a wet towel, put something woolen around your shoulders, and hurry through the halls. Remember that fresh, cool air is apt to settle below the smoke, and that if the fumes are too dense you may be able to breathe near the floor.

Forethought in providing simple appliances may prevent a serious fire. Two extinguishers are more efficacious than a dozen buckets of water, as the gas generated when the can is reversed spreads and smothers a fire, while the stream forced out through the nozzle reaches the exact spot where it will do the most good. But even water is better than nothing, though it must be conveniently at hand for use when the blaze begins. Common galvanized pails are cheap; they can be painted red, with "Fire" lettered on the side, and kept hanging in an accessible

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place (under the basement stairs, for example). Filled with water they are good, but a chemical solution is preferable, as water is not always to be depended on. Fires have a nasty way of breaking out in the country when the supply is short, or in winter when everything is frozen up.

Find out where the nearest fire-alarm box is, and tell your family and servants just how to summon the firemen in a hurry. If you have a telephone, especially if you are far from neighbors in the country, decide whom you will call upon in case of fire. See that the all-important number is clearly posted over your telephone, for no one will have time to search through the book for it during the excitement.

Even a child can stop a fire in the beginning if he knows what to do. It is a capital idea to increase the presence of mind, the common sense, of the whole family by an occasional fire-drill. Each one should have confidence enough to attempt to use the means at hand, and should be able to summon immediate assistance in case of need.

Sometimes mysterious fires are caused by illuminating gas. If you smell it, don't try to locate the leak with a lighted candle; you may cause an explosion. Take soapsuds, just as you used to do when your bicycle tire had a puncture, smear it over the pipes freely; the escaping gas will bubble up through the suds instantly, indicating the hole. Then make temporary repairs with tire tape, or what-not, until the plumber comes.

Most fires in private houses begin in the cellar or basement, through carelessness or accidents in connection with the furnace or range. Therefore, if you make it a rule to have all doors opening from the lower regions closed at bedtime, currents of air will be checked and a possible fire stifled or hindered.

Children should be taught never to play with fire. All open fireplaces should be well protected by wire fenders. Matches should be "safety," lighting on a prepared surface.

Alcohol lamps, etc., are responsible for much loss of life, as people become extremely reckless in handling them. Their use is forbidden in hotels, on ocean steamers, etc., yet we constantly see ignorant nursemaids using them, with small children hovering near. The large receptacle from which the lamp is filled should never be brought into close proximity with the lighted lamp, as, in case of accident, a very dangerous explosion may result.

Servants have a mania for saving rubbish; oily cloths, greasy waste, are tucked away under sinks and behind back stairs unless some one is on the lookout. Rags are apt to ignite spontaneously if hidden away in close, warm places. If it is absolutely necessary to save them, provide the special can with tight cover which comes for the purpose; but it is better to burn them at once.

Many conflagrations have arisen from curtains blowing into an unprotected gas jet. For convenience, lights in bedrooms and dressing-rooms are usually located near dressing-tables, the best place for which is beside a window; if the fixture is set on the window trim, the light will be dangerously close to the curtains. If the hems of the curtains should be weighted and the jets protected by wire globes, then the room will be comparatively safe, unless an unusual gale blows in while there is no one in the room. But there is always a risk; fortunately, electricity is supplanting gas for such places.

The insurance companies vigorously disapprove of gasoline or other explosive or inflammable liquids being kept on the premises, also of such things as flexible rubber connections for gas stoves, etc. It is advisable to examine their policies and find out how many articles are taboo, otherwise the policy may unwittingly be invalidated.

Iron fire-escapes of prescribed design are required on certain city buildings, schools, apartments, etc. The owners of high private dwellings are now frequently adding them to insure safety, although not obliged to do so by law. It certainly is a comfort, in case of fire, to realize that an easy way out has been planned; many precious lives have been lost simply through panic. People lose their senses and rush into danger when confused by smoke.

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THE MAN FARTHEST DOWN

CHILD LABOR AND THE SULPHUR MINES[1]

BY BOOKER T. WASHINGTON

AUTHOR OF "UP FROM SLAVERY," "THE STORY OF THE NEGRO," ETC.

THERE is one street in Catania, Sicily, which seems to be given over to the trade and industry of the poorer people of the city. It is not mentioned in the guide-books, and there is perhaps no reason why it should be. Nevertheless, there are a great many interesting things to be seen in that street—strange, quaint, homely things—that give a stranger intimate glimpses into the life of the people.

For example, on a street corner, tucked away in one of those snug spaces in which one sometimes finds a crowded fruit-stand, I discovered, one day, a macaroni factory. Within a space perhaps three feet wide and ten or twelve feet in length one man and a boy conducted the whole business of the sale as well as the manufacture of macaroni from the raw grain to the completed article of trade. The process, as it was carried on in this narrow space, was necessarily a simple one. There was a bag of flour, a box in which to mix the paste, and a press by which this paste was forced through holes that converted it into hollow tubes. Afterwards these hollow tubes were laid out on a cloth frame which, because there was no room inside, had been set up in the street. After leaving this cloth frame the macaroni was hung up on little wooden forms for inspection and for sale.

One of the most curious and interesting places on the street was an apothecary's shop in which the apothecary manufactured all his own drugs, and acted at the same time as the poor man's physician or medical adviser. This man had never studied pharmacy in a college. His knowledge of drugs consisted entirely of the traditions and trade secrets which had come down to him from his predecessor in the business. His shop was filled with sweet-smelling herbs, gathered for him by the peasants, and from these he brewed his medicines. The skeleton of a fish hung over the counter from which medicines were dispensed, and the shelves behind were filled with many curious and musty bottles.

The apothecary himself was a very serious person, with a high, pale forehead and the absorbed air of a man who feels the weight of the knowledge he carries around with him. All these things, especially the smell of the herbs, were quite awe-inspiring, and undoubtedly contributed something to the effectiveness of the medicines.

It is a very busy street in which the apothecary, the macaroni manufacturer, and the others are located. In fact, it seems as if work never stopped there, for it is full of little shops where men sit in their doorways or at the open windows until late at night, working steadily at their various trades, making the things they sell, and stopping only now and then to sell the things they make. The whole region is a hive of industry, for it is the neighborhood where the artisans live, those skilled workmen who make everything by hand that, in our part of the world, we have long since learned to make by machine. In fact, in this street it is possible to get a very good picture, I suspect, of the way in which trade and industry were carried on in other parts of Europe before the age of steam.

About nine o'clock Saturday night—the night upon which I arrived in Catania—I was walking down one of the side streets in this part of the city, when my attention was attracted to a man, sitting in his doorway, working by the light of a little smoky lamp. He was engaged in some delicate sort of iron work, and, as near as I could make out, he seemed to be a tool-maker.

What particularly attracted my attention was a little girl, certainly not more than seven years of age, who was busily engaged in polishing and sharpening the stamps he used. I stopped for a moment and watched this man and child, working steadily, silently, at this late hour

[1] Previous articles in this series appeared in The Outlook for May 6, May 13, June 3, and June 10.—THE EDITORS.

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of the night. I could but marvel at the patience and the skill the child showed at her work. It was the first time in my life that I had seen such a very little child at work, although I saw many others in the days that followed.

I have often heard it said that people who are born under the soft southern skies are habitually indolent, and never learn to work there, as they do in more northern latitudes. This is certainly not true of Sicily, for, so far as my experience goes, there is no other country in Europe where incessant labor is so largely the lot of the masses of the people. Certainly there is no other country where so much of the labor of all kinds, the skilled labor of the artisan as well as the rough labor of digging and carrying on the streets and in the mines, is performed by children, especially boys.

There is a law against Sunday labor in Catania, but the next morning, as I passed through this same quarter of the city, I found the majority of the people still busily at work. I stopped to watch a man who was making mandolins. This man lived in one room, which was at the same time a workshop, kitchen, and bedroom. There was a great heap of mattresses piled high upon the bed in one corner. A little charcoal brazier, on which the cooking for the family was performed, stood upon the work-bench. The ceiling was hung with finished instruments, and the pavement in front of the house was piled with others in various stages of completion. This room was occupied by a family of five, all of whom, with the exception of the wife and mother, were engaged, each in their different ways, in the work of manufacturing mandolins. All the skilled work (the setting of the decorations and the polishing of the frames) was performed by the boys, but a little girl who was standing near seemed to be making herself handy as a helper in the work of the others.

In this treeless country, where there is almost no wood of any kind to be had, the most useful building material, after stone and plaster, seems to be tile. Not only the roofs but the floors of most of the buildings are made of this material, and its manufacture is consequently one of the principal minor industries of the country. One day, while I was wandering about in the outskirts of Catania, I ran across a plant where two men and three little boys were at work mixing the clay, forming it into octagonal shapes, and piling it out in the sun to dry. The two men were at work in the shade of a large open shed, but I could not make out what they were doing. As nearly as I could see, almost all of the actual work was performed by the children, who ranged, I should say, from eight to twelve years of age. The work of carrying the heavy clay, and piling it up in the sun after it had been formed into tiles, was done by the younger children.

I am certain that if I had not seen them with my own eyes I would never have believed that such very little children could carry such heavy loads, or that they could work so systematically and steadily as they were compelled to do in order to keep pace with the rapid movements of the older boy, who was molding the tiles from the soft clay. The older boy could not have been, as I have said, more than twelve years of age, but he worked with all the skill and the rapidity of an experienced piece-worker driven at the top of his speed. I was so filled with pity and at the same time with admiration for this boy that, as I was unable to speak to him, I ventured to offer him a small coin in token of my appreciation of the skill with which he worked. So intent was he on his task, however, that he would not stop his work even to pick up the money I proffered him, but simply thanked me and nodded his head for me to place it on the bench beside him.

These instances of skilled labor among children are by no means exceptional. At another time I remember stopping to look at a little boy who, it seemed to me, could not be more than eight or nine years of age, working side by side with a man, evidently his father, together with several other men, all of them engaged in building a boat. The boy I speak of was engaged in finishing off with a plane the hardwood rail of the sides of the boat, and as I watched him at his task I was again compelled to wonder at the ease and skill with which these little fellows use their tools.

All these things, as I have said, gave me an idea of the manner in which the

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trades were carried on before the extensive use of machinery had brought the factory system into existence. It showed me also the easy way in which, in those days, the industrial education of children was carried on. When the work in the handicrafts was performed in the house, or in a shop adjoining the house, it was an easy thing for the father to hand down to the son the trade he himself had practiced. Under the conditions in which trades are carried on in Sicily to-day children are literally born to the trade which their fathers practice. In these homes, where the shop and the home are crowded together in one or two rooms, children see their fathers and mothers at work from the time they are born. As soon as they are able to handle a tool of any kind the boys, at any rate, and frequently the girls also, are set to work helping their parents. As the father, in his turn, has probably inherited the accumulated traditions and skill of generations that preceded him in the same trade, his children are able to get from him, in the easiest and most natural way, an industrial education such as no other kind of school can give.

Whatever may be the disadvantages of the people of Sicily in other respects, they have an advantage over the Negro in learning the skilled trades, the value of which it is difficult to estimate. Everywhere one sees the evidences of this skill with the hand, not only in the public buildings, but in some of the common objects of daily use. I have already referred to the way in which the ordinary little two-wheeled carts, which take the place of the ordinary farmer's wagon in this country, are decorated. I have seen in Catania men at work practically hewing these carts out of the log. I do not know to what extent the frame of the wagon is hewn out in this way, but, at any rate, the spokes are. Every detail is worked out with the greatest possible skill, even to the point of carving little figures or faces at the ends of the beams that make the frames. Likewise the harness of the donkeys that draw these carts is an elaborate and picturesque affair which must require a vast amount of patience and skill to make. The point I wish particularly to emphasize here is that all this skill in the handicrafts, which has become traditional in a people, is the best kind of preparation for every kind of higher education. In this respect the Italian, like the Japanese and Chinese, as well as every other race which has had centuries of training in the handicrafts, has an advantage over the Negro that can only be overcome when the masses of the Negro people have secured a training of the hand and a skill in the crafts that correspond to those of other races.

Not only are children, especially boys, employed at a very early age in all the trades I have mentioned, but young boys from fourteen to sixteen perform, as I have said, in the mines and elsewhere an incredible amount of the crude, rough work of the community.

I remember, one day in Palermo, seeing, for the first time in my life, boys, who were certainly not more than fourteen years of age, engaged in carrying on their backs earth from a cellar that was being excavated for a building. Men did the work of digging, but the mere drudgery of carrying the earth from the bottom of the excavation to the surface was performed by these boys. It was not simply the fact that mere children were engaged in this heavy work that impressed me. It was the slow, dragging steps, the fixed and unalterable expression of weariness that showed in every line of their bodies. Later I learned to recognize this as the habitual manner and expression of the *carusi*, which is the name that the Italians give to those boys who are employed in the sulphur mines to carry the crude ore up from the mines where it is dug and to load it in the cars by which it is conveyed to the surface.

The work in a sulphur mine is organized in many respects, I learned, like that of a coal mine. The actual work of digging the sulphur is performed by the miner, who is paid by the amount of crude ore he succeeds in getting out. He, in his turn, has a man or a boy, sometimes two or three of them, to assist him in getting the ore out of the mine to the smelter, where it is melted and refined. As I myself had had some experience as a boy in work similar to this in the mines of West Virginia, I was interested in learning all I could in regard to these boys and the conditions under which they worked.

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In the case of boys employed for this work, the Sicilians have a custom of binding out their children to the miner, or *picconiero*, as he is called. Such a boy is then called, in the language of the country, a *caruso*. As a matter of fact, a *picconiero* who buys a boy from his parents to employ him as a *caruso* actually purchases a slave. The manner in which the purchase is made is as follows: In Sicily, where the masses of the people are so wretchedly poor in everything else, they are nevertheless especially rich in children, and, as often happens, the family that has the largest number of mouths to fill has the least to put in them. It is from these families that the *carusi* are recruited. The father who turns his child over to a miner receives in return a sum of money in the form of a loan. The sum usually amounts to from eight to thirty dollars, according to the age of the boy, his strength and general usefulness. With the payment of this sum the child is turned over absolutely to his master. From this slavery there is no hope of freedom, because neither the parents nor the child will ever have sufficient money to repay the original loan.

Strange and terrible stories are told about the way in which these boy slaves have been treated by their masters. Before coming to Sicily I had met and talked with persons who described to me the processions of half-naked boys, their bodies bowed under the heavy weight of the loads they carried, groaning and cursing as they made their way up out of the hot and sulphurous holes in the earth, as they carried the ore from the mine to the smelter. All that I had heard elsewhere was confirmed later by the details furnished by official reports and special studies of conditions in the mining regions, made at different times and by different persons. In these reports I learned that the mines had been in the past the refuge of a debased and criminal population, whose vices made the bleak, sulphur-smitten region where the mines are located as much like hell as it looks.

The cruelties to which the child slaves have been subjected, as related by those who have studied them, are as bad as anything that was ever reported of the cruelties of Negro slavery. These boy slaves were frequently beaten and pinched, in order to wring from their overburdened bodies the last drop of strength they had in them. When beatings did not suffice, it was the custom to singe the calves of their legs with lanterns to put them again on their feet. If they sought to escape from this slavery in flight, they were captured and beaten, sometimes even killed.

As they climbed out of the hot and poisonous atmosphere of the mines their bodies, naked to the waist and dripping with sweat, were chilled by the cold draughts in the corridors leading out of the mines, and this sudden transition was the frequent cause of pneumonia and tuberculosis.

In former years children of six and seven years of age were employed at these crushing and terrible tasks. Under the heavy burdens (averaging about forty pounds) they were compelled to carry, they often became deformed, and the number of cases of curvature of the spine and deformations of the bones of the chest reported was very large. More than that, these children were frequently made the victims of the lust and unnatural vices of their masters. It is not surprising, therefore, that they early gained the appearance of gray old men, and that it has become a common saying that a *caruso* rarely reaches the age of twenty-five.

It was with something of all this in my mind that I set out from Palermo a little before daylight one morning in September to visit the mines at Campo Franco, on the southern side of the island, in the neighborhood of Girgenti. My misgivings were considerably increased when, upon reaching the railway station to take the train, I found that the guide and interpreter who had been employed the night before to accompany us on the trip had not made his appearance. We waited until all the porters at the station and the guards on the train were fairly in a fever of excitement in their well-meant efforts to get us and our baggage on the train. Then, at the last moment, with the feeling that we were taking a desperate chance, we scrambled aboard and started off into a wild unknown, which no guide-book had charted and, so far as I knew, no tourist had ever visited.

The train carried us for some distance

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along the fertile plain between the sea and the hills. It was just possible to make out in the twilight of the early morning the dim outlines of the little towns we passed. At length, just as we were able to catch the first gleams of the morning sun along the crests of the mountains, the railway turned abruptly southward and the train plunged into a wide valley between the brown and barren hills.

At Rocca Palomba we left the main line of the railway, which turns eastward from there in the direction of Catania, and continued our journey with the somewhat ruder comforts of an accommodation train. From this point on the way grew rougher, the country wilder, and the only companions of our journey were the rude country folk, with an occasional sprinkling of miners. At the little town of Lercara we entered the zone of the sulphur mines. From now on at nearly every station we passed I saw great masses of the bright yellow substance, piled in cars, waiting to be carried down to the port of Girgenti for shipment to all parts of the world, and particularly to the United States, which is still the largest market for this Sicilian gold.

The nearer the train approached our destination, the more uncomfortable I grew about the prospect that was before us. I felt very sure that I should be able to reach Campo Franco and perhaps see something of the mines, but whether I should ever be able to get out again and what would become of me if I were compelled to seek shelter in some of the unpromising places I saw along the way was very uncertain.

Fortunately, Dr. Robert E. Park, of Boston, who was traveling with me, and who accompanied me on nearly all of my excursions of this kind, was with me on this trip. Dr. Park had a pretty thorough mastery of the German language, and could speak a little French, but no Italian. He had, however, an Italian grammar in his satchel, and when we finally found ourselves at sea, in a region where neither English, German, nor French was of any help to us, he took that grammar from his satchel and set to work to learn enough Italian between Palermo and Campo Franco to be able to make at least our most urgent wants known. For four hours he devoted himself industriously to the study of that beautiful and necessary language. It was a desperate case, and I think I am safe in saying that Dr. Park studied grammar more industriously during those four hours than he ever did before in his life. At any rate, by the time the train had crossed the rocky crest of the mountains which divide the north and south sides of Sicily, and before we disembarked at the lonesome little station of Campo Franco, he could speak enough Italian, mixed with German, French, and English, to make himself understood. Perhaps another reason for Dr. Park's success was the fact that the Italians understand the sign language pretty well.

The mines at Campo Franco are on the slope of the mountain, just above the railway station. A mile or more across the great empty valley, high up on the slope of the opposite mountain, is the village from which the mines get their name, a little cluster of low stone and cement buildings, clinging to the mountain-side as if they were in imminent danger of slipping into the valley below.

A few hundred yards above the station great banks of refuse had been dumped into the valley, and a place leveled off on the side of the mountain, where the furnaces and smelters were located. There were great rows of kilns, like great pots, half buried in the earth, in which the ore is melted and then run off into forms where it is cooled and allowed to harden.

I confess that I had been very dubious as to the way that we were likely to be received at the mines, seeing that we did not know the customs nor the people, and had very scant supply of Italian in which to make known our wants. The manager, however, who proved to be a very polite and dignified man, could speak a little French and some English. He seemed to take a real pleasure in showing us about the works. He explained the methods by which the sulphur was extracted, insisted upon our drinking a glass of wine, and was even kind enough to loan me a horse and guide, when I expressed a desire to rent one of the passing donkeys to convey me to some of the more inaccessible places, farther up the mountain, where I could see the miners had burrowed into the earth in search of

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sulphur. On the vast slope of the mountain and at a distance they looked like ants running in and out of little holes in the earth.

It was at the mouth of one of these entrances to the mines that I got my first definite notion of what sulphur miners look like—those unfortunate creatures who wear out their lives amid the poisonous fumes and the furnace heat of these underground hells. There was a rumble of a car, and presently a man, almost stark naked, stepped out of the dark passageway. He was worn, haggard, and gray, and his skin had a peculiar grayish-white tinge. He spoke in a husky whisper, but I do not know whether that is one of the characteristic effects of the work in the mines or not. I was told that, in addition to other dangers, the sulphur has a bad effect upon the lungs. It was explained to me that the sulphur dust gets into the lungs and clogs them up, and that is what accounts for the groans of the *carusi*, so frequently spoken of, when they are tugging up the steep and winding passageways with the heavy burdens of crude ore on their backs.

It had been many years since I had been in a mine, but as I entered the dark, damp gallery and felt the sudden underground chill, the memories of my early experiences all came back to me. As we got farther into the mine, however, the air seemed to grow warmer. Suddenly a door at the side of the gallery opened; a blast of hot air, like that from a furnace, burst out into the corridor, and another of those half-naked men, dripping with perspiration, stepped out.

We passed at intervals along the main corridor a number of these doors, which, as I discovered, led down into parts of the mine where the men were at work. It seemed incredible to me that any one could live and work in such heat, but I had come there to see what a sulphur mine was like, so I determined to try the experiment.

The side passage which I entered was, in fact, little more than a burrow, twisting and winding its way, but going constantly deeper and deeper into the dark depths of the earth. I had known what it was to work deep down under the earth, but I never before so thoroughly realized what it meant to be in the bowels of the earth, as I did while I was groping my way through the dark and winding passages of this sulphur mine.

It is down at the bottom of these holes, and in this steaming atmosphere, that the miners work. They loosen the ore from the walls of the seams in which it is found, and then it is carried up out of these holes in sacks by the *carusi*.

In the mine which I visited the work of getting the ore to the surface was performed in a modern and comparatively humane way. It was simply necessary to carry the ore from the different points where it is mined to the car, by which it is then transported to the smelter. In those mines, however, where the work is still carried on in the old, traditional fashion, which has been in vogue as far back as any one can remember, all the ore is carried on the backs of boys. In cases where the mine descended to the depth of two, three, or four hundred feet the task of carrying these loads of ore to the surface is simply heartbreaking. I can well understand that persons who have seen conditions at the worst should speak of the children who have been condemned to this slavery as the most unhappy creatures on earth.

From all that I can learn, however, the conditions have changed for the better in recent years. In 1902 a law was passed which forbade the employment of children under thirteen years in underground work, and to this was added, a little later, a provision which forbade, after 1905, the employment of children under fifteen in the mines.

So far as I am able to say, this provision was carried out in the mine I visited, for I did not see anywhere inside the mine children at work. I saw a number of the poor little creatures at work in the dumps outside the mine, however. They were carrying refuse ore in bags on their backs, throwing it on screens, and then loading the finer particles back into the cars. Once having seen these gangs of boys at work, I could never mistake their slow, dragging movements and the expression of dull despair upon their faces.

It is said that the employment of boys in the sulphur mines is decreasing. According to law, the employment of children under fifteen years of age has been forbidden since

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1905. As is well known, however, in Italy as in America it is much easier to make laws than to enforce them. This is especially true in Sicily. The only figures which I have been able to obtain upon the subject show that from 1880 to 1898 there was an enormous increase in the number of children employed in and about the mines. In 1880 there were 2,419 children under fifteen years working there, among whom were eight girls. Of this number 88 were seven and 163 were eight years of age, while twelve per cent of the whole number were under nine years of age. In 1898, however, the number of children under fifteen years of age was 7,032, of whom 5,232 were at work inside the mines. At this time the Government had already attempted to put some restrictions on the employment of children in the mines, but the age limit had not been fixed as high as fifteen years.

The sulphur mines are located on the southern slopes of the mountains that cross Sicily from east to west. About ten miles below Campo Franco the two branches of the railway, one running directly south from Rocca Palomba, and the other running southwest from Caltanisetta, come together a few miles above Girgenti. On the slopes of the broad valleys through which these two branches of the railway run are located nearly all the sulphur mines in Sicily. From these mines, which furnish something like seventy per cent of the world's supply of sulphur, a constant stream of this yellow ore flows down to the sea at the port of Girgenti.

After leaving Campo Franco I traveled through this whole region. In many places the mountain slopes are fairly honeycombed with holes, where the miners in years past have dug their way into the mountain in search of the precious yellow mineral. For many miles in every direction the vegetation has been blasted by the poisonous smoke and vapors from the smelters, and the whole country has a blotched and scrofulous appearance which is depressing to look upon, particularly when one considers the amount of misery and the number of human lives it has cost to create this condition. I have never in my life seen any place that seemed to come so near meeting the description of the "abomination of desolation" referred to in the Bible. There is even a certain grandeur in the desolation of this country which looks as if the curse of God rested upon it.

I am not prepared just now to say to what extent I believe in a physical hell in the next world, but a sulphur mine in Sicily is about the nearest thing to a hell that is conceivable in my opinion. In the mine to which I went I found the heat, the sulphur, and the people; with these three elements there seemed nothing lacking to constitute a hell.

As I have already said, however, there are indications that in the sulphur mines, as elsewhere in Sicily, the situation of the man farthest down is improving. I pray God that it is so, for I could not picture an existence more miserable than the slow torture of this crushing labor in the hot and poisonous air of these sulphur mines.

Let me say also that I came away from the sulphur mines and from Sicily with a very much better opinion of the people than when I entered. I went to Italy with the notion that the Sicilians were a race of brigands, a sullen and irritable people who were disposed at any moment to be swept off their feet by violent and murderous passions. I came away with the feeling that, whatever might be the faults of the masses of the people, they were, at the very least, more sinned against than sinning, and that they deserve the sympathy rather than the condemnation of the world.

The truth is that, as far as my personal experience goes, I was never treated more kindly in my whole life than I was the day when, coming as a stranger, without an introduction of any kind, I ventured to visit the region which has the reputation of being the most wicked, and is certainly the most unfortunate, in Europe. I mean the region around and north of Girgenti, which is the seat at once of the sulphur mines and the Mafia.

If any one had told me before I went to Sicily that I would be willing to intrust my life to Sicilians away down in the darkness of a sulphur mine, I should have believed that such a person had lost his mind. I had read and heard so much of

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murders, of the Mafia in Sicily, that for a long time I had had a horror of the name of Sicilians; but when I came in contact with them, before I knew it, I found myself trusting them absolutely to such an extent that I willingly followed them into the bowels of the earth; into a hot, narrow, dark sulphur mine where, without a moment's warning, they might have demanded my life or held me, if they cared to, for a ransom. Nothing of this kind occurred; on the other hand, I repeat, every Sicilian with whom I came in contact in the sulphur mine treated me in the most kindly manner, and I came away from their country having the highest respect for them.

I did not meet while I was there a single person, from the superintendent to the lowest laborer at the mines, who did not seem, not only willing, but even anxious, to assist me to see and learn everything I wanted to know. What is more, Campo Franco was the only place in Europe where I met men who refused to accept money for a service rendered me.

"HORACE!"

BY EDMUND L. PEARSON

HORACE WINSLOW, from our point of view, was entitled to sympathy—he was being "brought up" with so much care.

Not that any of us were neglected. School was our portion on week days for nine months of the year, and on Sunday we were duly despatched to the school appropriate to that day. Each of us carried the traditional cent for the contribution-box. And, as in the story-books (which are sometimes faithful transcripts of life), it was with difficulty that we passed the traditional drug-shop, which displayed the traditional peppermint lozenges and "coltsfoot."

And, still in the traditional manner, the Tempter's voice was loud sometimes in our ears—so loud that we turned and entered Dr. Dibden's shop and spent that cent for a roll of lozenges or a piece of "coltsfoot" or "stick lick'rish."

But if we did this thing, so did Horace Winslow. And if sometimes we had to be sent from the table to remove a few burrs from our coat collars or to make another attempt with the hair-brush and comb, so did Horace. In such matters his experiences were not different from those of other boys in the neighborhood. His mind was being improved—that was all.

There was an afternoon, a warm afternoon in the summer vacation, when Horace and I were in his garden engaged in making a suitable home for turtles. The turtles—there were only four of them now—had been straying lately, and it was clear that something had to be done. It is distressing, after you have lavished any amount of attention on a turtle, and have tied him by a long string so as to give him wide liberty, to find, at the morning inspection, that he has twisted and tangled the string among the grass, and then departed, leaving one end of the string buried, as if in derision, in the ground.

This had been our experience, and we were now trying to construct a turtle-pen out of boards and shingles. I noticed that Horace was ill at ease. When the North Church clock struck two, he rose nervously from the grass and muttered something about supposing that he would have to go in now. He glanced apprehensively toward the house as he did so, and, sure enough, the voice of Horace's aunt came from behind the closed shutters of a window.

"Horace!"

"Oh, I don't want to come in now!"

"Horace!"

"Well, I don't, Aunt. Sam and I have got to build this turtle-pen."

"HORACE!"

"I can't leave Sam here all alone, Aunt."

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"Horace, come in the house instantly. You may bring Samuel with you."

"Oh, he don't want to come."

"*Doesn't* want to come, you mean. Wouldn't you like to hear me read to Horace, Samuel?"

I was greatly interested in the turtles, but I was also fond of being read to. Apparently I was about to lose the company of Horace, anyhow. Moreover, I was afraid of Horace's aunt. So I meekly said:

"Yes'm."

But Horace still raised objections.

"We can't leave the turtles like this, Aunt. They'll all get away."

"Horace, mind what I say this minute. You can secure the turtles well enough. I will give you three minutes longer, and if you are not indoors then your uncle will punish you this evening."

We collected the wayward turtles and put them in a garden basket. A few seconds later we presented ourselves before Mrs. Vincent, who looked at us ominously over the top of a book. Horace sat down in one stiff-backed chair and I in another. Horace began to screw his face into knots as soon as he saw the book. It was unknown to me, and fifteen or twenty years were to elapse before I should know its title. Then, one day, reading "The History of France," by M. Guizot, I recognized a passage and realized that it was with that work we had been regaled—when we wished to care for our turtles.

"Oh, Aunt—"

"Horace, be quiet. Sit up straight in your chair. Put your hand down."

She looked Horace over critically, and then began to read. "'The old Parliamentarians were triumphant; at the same time as Abbé Terray, Chancellor Maupeou was disgraced, and the judicial system he had founded fell with him. Unpopular from the first, the Maupeou Parliament had remained in the nation's eyes the image of absolute power corrupted and corrupting. The suit between Beaumarchais and Councilor Goëzman—'"

"Oh, Aunt, I don't want—"

"Horace, if you are not still this instant, I will put you to bed!"

Horace's articulations dissolved into snuffles and whines; we both hitched and wriggled in our chairs, and the reading went on. We heard what Chancellor Maupeou said to the Duke de la Vrillière, and what M. Turgot wrote to Louis XVI—if a process in which the brain took almost no part can be called hearing. These personages were strangers to me, but Horace greeted them as familiar enemies. I judged that he knew and hated them of old time.

An hour passed—a long, hot hour. M. de Malesherbes had gone the way of Turgot, and Horace and I were reduced to a mere coma. Then the book was closed, and we were told that we might return to our turtles. We did so with profound joy, and Horace, seeing the Tiltons' cat hurrying over the fence, remarked that she was Chancellor Maupeou, and threw a green apple at her.

With such careful training of the vine it was remarkable that Horace, of all of us, was least fond of civilization—of those phases of it, at any rate, which obtained in our town. Among the guardians of youth there was perhaps none more inclined than Mrs. Vincent to view with distaste the attempt on the part of her ward and nephew to take a turtle to bed with him. Yet it was Horace who conceived the idea, and for one or two nights carried it out. And it was Horace who, on circus day, reduced his uncle and aunt to a state of unutterable horror.

It happened in this fashion. When Ed Mason and I returned from our attempt to cross the Western prairies—an expedition which had been interrupted after two hours' flight by an untoward incident at Brown's ice-pond—we met with an unsatisfactory reception at our homes. For an hour or so all was effusiveness, but we soon discovered that our revolt had put in jeopardy our chances of seeing the circus on the following day. In the morning the parental severity had so far relaxed as to permit us to go to watch the street parade, but the half-dollars necessary to secure admission to the great show in the afternoon were still withheld.

Before ten o'clock we all set out for Main Street—Ed Mason, Rob Currier, Peter Bailey, and myself, together with an unavoidable convoy of small sisters and other relatives. The streets had that appearance which circus day, and no other,

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always brought. Toy-balloon men and sellers of paper whirligigs wandered up and down, and strange-looking persons clutching children with one hand and paper bags of luncheon with the other stood or sat on the grass bankings, edgestones, and lawns in front of the houses.

Through a sort of family privilege enjoyed by Peter Bailey, and always exercised on such occasions, we took up our position on the steps of the Merrimack Bank. Mr. Vincent, Horace's uncle, could be seen at his duties inside the bank, but he did not come out. Circus processions did not interest him.

Horace was unaccountably absent.

There were two or three false alarms, two or three mistaken announcements by members of the crowd: "Here they come!" Twice we thought we heard in the distance the faint blare of brass instruments, as well as a deeper sound which Ed Mason declared to be the roaring of lions. But at last they did come. Majestically, and with clashing cymbals, they descended Main Street.

At the head was a gorgeous wagon carrying a brass band. The men were in red coats, and they blew their trombones and cornets and beat their drums with the utmost vigor. A cavalcade followed, and then came four or five large and gayly painted cars containing, so the pictures and legends indicated, the blood-sweating behemoth, the laughing hyenas, two Nubian lions, and the man-eating tiger of Bengal. But the carts were all closed, and the blood-sweating behemoth, if he were there, gave no sign. Nor did the other animals. We had to be contented with their painted likenesses on the sides of the carts.

"Do you suppose they're inside there, now?" asked Rob Currier's small sister, in a hushed voice.

"Of course they are," Ed Mason assured her, scornfully; "I saw one of the hyenas through a crack when they went by."

"Look!" said Peter Bailey, "here comes the steam calli-ope!"

Sure enough, there it was. A man in overalls was energetically shoveling coal into the boiler, and a charming lady with very pink cheeks sat at the keys. As the thing came opposite us she began to play, and every ear in the vicinity was split as with ten thousand steam whistles hooting out "Climbing Up Dem Golden Stairs." The noise was deafening, and each boy of us resolved that if he ever became rich the first thing he would buy would be one of those delightful contrivances. Then he had only to hire a man to shovel coal into it, and he might sit all day and dispense music for miles in every direction.

The calliope passed, as all beautiful things do, and our attention was distracted by a herd of elephants, who slouched along, dusty and morose. Then came some more carts of animals, and then a brilliant zebra led by a boy in a red coat.

This boy looked up at us, grinned joyfully, and waved his hand.

"Why, it's Horace Winslow!" some one exclaimed.

It was indeed Horace. The red coat was evidently intended for a fair-sized man, for it hung below Horace's knees, and gave him the appearance of wearing a single garment, like a tunic. On his head was rakishly perched a small red cap similar to those affected by the monkeys who travel with hand-organs. Horace's face was warm and perspiring, and a good deal of dust, aroused by the elephants and the carts, had adhered to it. But this was plainly the supreme moment of his life, and no fussy considerations of cleanliness annoyed him in the least. Was he not a feature in a genuine circus procession, marching with the clown with real elephants, and leading a proud and striped zebra with his own hand?

He grinned again and waved his hand to us once more. We were petrified with amazement and envy. At that moment Mr. Vincent, cool and placid in seersucker clothes, stepped out of the bank. He was going down the street on some business errand, and he paused for a moment and gazed indulgently at the procession.

"There's Horace, Mr. Vincent!" we all shouted.

We were determined that he should know of the honor that had come upon his family. It was a fine thing to be cashier of the Merrimack Bank, the trusted guardian of thousands of dollars, but was not this mere dust and ashes compared to leading a zebra in a circus procession?

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If each generation of his family were to rise in this manner, where might they not end?

Mr. Vincent smiled at us and said, "What?"

"There's Horace!" we all screamed, pointing our fingers. "Don't you see him? Leading the zebra!"

By this time Mr. Vincent had adjusted his eye-glasses, and as he looked in the direction of his glorified nephew that personage turned around for one final grin and wave of the hand. The change in expression on the visage of the bank cashier was extraordinary. From mild benignancy it turned to purple-faced consternation.

"What?" he gasped. "What? *My Horace?*"

Then he descended the steps swiftly and plunged into the crowd on the sidewalk. Apparently he was bent on overtaking his nephew; but the throng blocked his way, and Horace had turned the corner of the next street before his uncle could reach him.

Ed Mason and I did not waste time watching him, for we were discussing a plan. It seemed to promise success, and we only waited for the end of the procession to pass before putting it into operation. Then we detached ourselves from the others, and hastened through Main Street to Haskell's Field, where the tents were pitched for the great show in the afternoon. The field was more than a mile distant, and the leaders of the procession had already begun to arrive when we got there. We wormed ourselves in between carts and piles of hay, among horses, venders of lemonade and peanuts, and dozens of boys and men. Horace and his zebra soon arrived, and we sought him out in the crowd.

"I came out here at five o'clock this morning," said he, "an' I helped bring water for the ellerphants, an' hay for the horses, an' then that man over there who took the zebra gave me five cents, an' said if I'd lead the zebra in the parade he'd give me a free ticket for the show this afternoon. Tommy Sweeney got inside an' helped a man feed the kangaroos, an'—"

"Do you s'pose we can water the ellerphants or anything, or—"

"I dunno; it's nearly twelve o'clock now, ain't it? I've got to get home an' get dinner so's to be back here at one, if that man should want anything more, an' you can come back with me then, if you want to, an' p'r'aps you can do something an' get a ticket."

We wanted no other invitation than this. We went back to town with Horace, determined to follow his plan. Like him, we would demand our dinners early, and return to the circus field at one o'clock under his guidance. Doubtless his influence with the zebra man would be all that was needed. Horace had given over the red coat and hat (but not the dust on his face) to the circus men, and he arrived excited and disheveled at his uncle's house. He left us at the gate, but we paused an instant, for Mrs. Vincent stood on the veranda to welcome him.

"I want dinner right away, Aunt, 'cause I've got to get back to the circus by one o'clock, an'—"

"Horace Winslow, you come into the house this instant, and take off every stitch and get into the bath-tub! Look at your face! Get up to the bath-room—quick! The tub is all filled—"

"Oh, Aunt, I can't stop to fool with takin' baths; I want dinner, 'cause I've got to get back there at one o'clock."

"Get back there, indeed! Not one step out of this house do you go this afternoon. Take off your jacket before you come into the house. Did you have it on under that horrible red thing? Give it to me—it's going to be burned up as quick as I can do it. Quick!"

"Oh, Aunt, I've promised the zebra-trainer to be back there— Why, they're dependin' on me! I've got—"

"Not one step! Do you hear? Now upstairs with you, and into that bath-tub!"

Horace vanished into the house, followed by his aunt. Ed Mason and I looked disconsolately at each other and started wearily toward our homes. If any one's influence was going to admit us to the circus, it was plainly not Horace Winslow's.

He had declined in power. From a magnificent zebra-leader he was reduced to a humiliating position in a bath-tub. Even before we were out of earshot we heard him emit a loud howl. And this was followed by a monitory voice:

"Horace!"

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THE NEW BOOKS

The British Imperial Conference meets from time to time to advance the Empire's closer union in trade matters, and it is in session as we write. As a surety of actual conditions throughout the Empire and of the questions before the Conference, we would recommend Mr. Geoffrey Drage's "The Imperial Organization of Trade." While the student of economics may wish fuller treatment, the book offers a good survey for the general reader. Britons may well regard with pride the present trade relations between the mother country and the colonies and those among the colonies. But there are certain hampering conditions. These naturally fall into three departments—legislation, administration, policy. Uniformity is being sought in all. For instance, there should be uniformity of legislation throughout the Empire on such subjects as naturalization, patents, trade-marks, currency, weights, measures, bills of exchange, insolvency, and marine insurance. There should be uniformity of administration—first, making available everywhere information proportionately equal in its adequacy to the best information now furnished; second, doing away with the overlapping of departments; and, third, providing for a Supreme Imperial Court of Appeal. Finally, there should be greater uniformity of trade policy; and just here readers will probably find the volume's chief interest, for Mr. Drage actually thinks that the advance can be along lines to which both free-traders and protectionists can agree; his project may be roughly defined as one of commercial co-operation. Speaking of free-traders, it will be interesting to them and others to note that Mr. Drage admits the debt owed by shipping, beyond any other industry, to free trade. While he admits that the granting of ship subsidies by foreign governments has favored the development of competition against Great Britain, he declares that, despite this, British shipping has, in the main, held its own. He concludes, as does The Outlook, that the competition of British ship-owners, without the aid of subsidies or of special freight rates, is more healthy and likely to be more beneficial than a State-subsidized system, under which the ship-owner would have to depend less on his individual energy and more on the Government's support. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $3.50.)

Signora Ferrero, wife of the well-known historian, and daughter of the distinguished criminologist, the late Professor Cesare Lombroso, adds a volume to the Science Series, bearing the title of his great work, "Criminal Man," and giving a classified summary of his conclusions therein. In producing this work he had collaborated, and he wrote its Introduction during his last illness. Americans were regarded by him as his most forward disciples. Elmira Reformatory is an early monument of his teaching. The genesis of this and similar institutions subsequently founded in both Americas was in his doctrine of "criminal man." On this is based the modern school of penal jurisprudence, which treats the criminal as a diseased man, no less so than the insane, and criminality as a condition to be cured and prevented. Part I of the present volume classifies the various types of criminals, noting their physical and psychological characteristics, and giving portraits with other illustrations and bits of individual history. The origin, cause, and cure of crime are discussed in Part II, and Part III goes into minute scientific examinations of the characters and types of criminals, with a view to practical applications of Lombroso's theory, especially in discriminating criminality from lunacy. Such examinations serve occasionally to establish the innocence of an accused person, or to prove an accuser as hysterical or insane, and not to be believed. Signora Ferrero gives large notice to some American institutions as leading the world in a reformed penology. The generally backward and shameful conditions of our county jails she seems not to have investigated. Notwithstanding the large percentage of crimes of violence, in which the United States compares unfavorably with other civilized states, she declares that under the peculiar conditions which she specifies we "may realize with pride that the percentage of crime in the United States is certainly lower than it could be in any Continental state under similar conditions." (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $2.)

Mr. E. E. Hale, Jr.'s, "William H. Seward" is in agreeable contrast to its immediate predecessor in the "American Crisis Biographies" series—the life of Stephen A. Douglas, by Professor Willis. Where the latter, as we felt obliged to point out in our notice of his book, emphasizes the failings of his "hero," Mr. Hale prefers to stress Seward's achievements, without, however, glossing over his defects, and without unduly exalting him among the other great leaders of his time. Seward, as Mr. Hale makes us see very plainly, was at once a politician and a statesman, who "made mistakes which still reduce his friends to wonder," but whose mistakes were not of sufficient moment to eclipse his really splendid career. It was his chief merit that, from the time when he began to study politics in quiet Auburn, he thought Nationally rather than locally. It was his Nationalism that led him, throughout his long public service, to espouse the cause of internal improvements; it was his Nationalism, rather than any Abolition sentiment, that made him an anti-slavery man, perceiving as he did the menace that slavery constituted to the welfare of the Nation; and it was his Nationalism that enabled him to crown his career by the Alaska Purchase. To this great act, it should be said, Mr. Hale

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devotes far less space than is its due, since he disposes of it in a single paragraph. But, on the other hand, he gives more space, and rightly, to the formative period of Seward's life and to his public activities in New York than most of his biographers have done. Indeed, his study of the New York phase of Seward's career is so detailed and informative, and brings to light so many new facts, that it may fairly be pronounced a real contribution to the literature of American history. Decidedly, too, it is a readable contribution, not lacking in epigrammatic flavor and in clear-cut, well-balanced characterizations of men, events, and measures. (George W. Jacobs & Co., Philadelphia. $1.25.)

As editor of the "Narratives of Early Carolina," recently published in the American Historical Association's series of original narratives pertaining to early American history, Mr. A. S. Salley, Jr., Secretary of the South Carolina Historical Commission, ably sustains his reputation for sound historical scholarship. The documents he has brought together form an excellent source-book for the study of the two Carolinas during the period of exploration and first settlement. In all, about a score of pamphlets, letters, and "relations" are reproduced, giving a first-hand account, by sailors, travelers, settlers, and missionaries, of the soil, climate, native inhabitants, and governmental conditions of both North and South Carolina. Perhaps the most interesting reprint in the collection is Daniel Defoe's "Party Tyranny," exhibiting the famous novelist as a pamphleteering and, according to Mr. Salley, badly informed advocate of the Dissenters of South Carolina in their conflict with Governor Moore. Special interest also attaches to the letters of Nicholas Carteret, Maurice Mathews, and Joseph West, describing their misadventures while *en route* to make homes for themselves in the then scarcely settled South Carolina. To each "source" Mr. Salley prefixes a critical and narrative introduction and carefully annotates the text. This volume, in fact, is one of the best edited and most fully annotated in the series to which it belongs, and should prove of great service to historical students and writers. (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. $3.)

Mr. Shepard A. Morgan's "The History of Parliamentary Taxation in England" is to be commended as a careful survey of a subject to which considerable interest attaches at present, owing to the constitutional struggle under way between the House of Commons and the House of Lords. It is not a "monumental" work, nor does it give evidence of that minuteness of research in which the modern historical writer of the "scientific" school prides himself. But by the general reader—and, for that matter, by the average student of English history—this will be accounted in its favor. Certainly Mr. Morgan has gone to good sources for his facts, and the information he gives is quite sufficient to meet the needs of any but a specialist. His effort, briefly, is to trace the growth of the taxing power in England up to the year 1689, the year of the enactment of the Bill of Rights. The process, as he rightly depicts it, was one of struggle, first between King and barons, then between King and people. It was thus a conflict between autocracy and democracy; at all events, after Magna Charta—which document, by the way, Mr. Morgan, following McKechnie, regards simply as an "opening wedge" rather than as any declaration of opposition to arbitrary taxation. "It is an anticipation of later history," he emphatically declares, "to read into the provisions of Magna Charta either a definite inauguration of national consent to taxation or of the representative principle." This, unquestionably, is the correct view. Considering, however, the policy pursued in later times by the Tudors, it is hardly correct to say, as Mr. Morgan does, that "Magna Charta brought to an end the period of absolutism." The absolutism of the Tudor monarchs is, in fact, emphasized in due course by Mr. Morgan himself. His book, as was said, is based on the best authorities, is well proportioned and well written, and is distinctly successful in its purpose of relating in brief compass the story of the shift in the taxing power from King to Parliament. (Moffat, Yard & Co., New York. $2.)

The republication of Samuel Butler's "Unconscious Memory," with a valuable introduction by Professor Marcus Hartog, will doubtless stimulate a new scientific controversy regarding the possibility of the transmission by heredity of acquired characteristics. This, as is well known, is one of the central problems connected with the evolutionary hypothesis, and the scientific world has long been divided concerning it. Butler, whose views on heredity were first put forth in 1878, in his book "Life and Habit," not only adopted the transmission theory but formulated a singular hypothesis to account for it—namely, that acquired characteristics may be, and are, transmitted from one generation to another through "memory on the part of offspring of certain actions which it did when in the persons of its forefathers." This hypothesis, which was further elaborated in his "Unconscious Memory," obviously implied a oneness of personality between parents and children, and also implied the "organic memory" of Professor Hering, whose views, however, were not known to Butler when he wrote his "Life and Habit." But, while giving Hering a respectful hearing, the biologists of the time, to quote Professor Hartog's phrase, treated Butler's efforts as a "gigantic joke." Latterly there has been evident an increasing tendency to take him more seriously, and this changing attitude is clearly reflected in Professor Hartog's introduction, a scholarly essay which presents in a concise way the arguments *pro* and *con* Butler's prof-

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fered solution of the still unsettled heredity problem. It should perhaps be added that Butler's book, though largely polemical, is addressed primarily not to the scientist but to the general reader, and has certain qualities of style that distinctly enhance its interest. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $1.50.)

Mr. Paget Toynbee is abundantly able to do justice to the life of Dante, and he has done so. In the well printed and bound volume on "Dante Alighieri" the ordinary reader should find satisfaction, though the Dante student will probably wish for a more exhaustive text. But the world has always been in need of just such a biography as this—something to make the man Dante stand out in contradistinction to the myth Dante. While the old legends are mainly responsible for that myth, even the most vivid link we have with Dante is also somewhat responsible. And that link is Giotto's fresco of him in the Bargello at Florence. As we look upon that portrait and realize that it alone has come down to us as a testimony directly from mediæval times of just how Dante looked (painted, too, by one of the greatest realists of all time), we cannot help projecting Dante's life from the portrait and fitting into that life a great deal of gossip, more or less valuable, which chroniclers have passed along from age to age. With an Englishman's clear-headedness, directness, and conciseness, Mr. Toynbee makes short work of some of these things, while preserving others. He gives to us, not a fresco as a portrait; he gives to us a statue. No longer are we to be satisfied with the Dante drawn on the wall. We now have the rounded Dante. We now have something more nearly approaching the impact of a real man. It is fortunate, then, for the cause of literature and for the cause of history alike that the present volume has been published. Its author lays no claim, we suppose, to definitive biography—that would be a rather absurd claim on the part of any biographer of Dante. But Mr. Toynbee has known how to produce a book alike interesting and entertaining to the youthful student of history and literature, helpful to the maturer man, and, above all, adding to the reverence of the world for the greatest mind in Italian literature. While Mr. Toynbee addresses the general reader rather than the serious student, the student may well buy the book, if not for the text, then for the appendices. They include a genealogical table, a copy of the celebrated letter of Frate Ilario, the letters concerning the discovery of the Giotto portrait, a chronological list of early commentaries on "The Divine Comedy," and a list of the earliest biographies and biographical notices of Dante. (The Macmillan Company, New York. $1.50.)

In scope and execution Mr. E. A. Brayley-Hodgett's "The House of Hohenzollern" reminds one strongly of Streckfuss's "Fünf Hundert Jahre Berliner Geschichte." While the present volume has not the wealth of detail, the intimate touch, or the genuinely German atmosphere of the other work, it is a worth-while book. Mr. Brayley-Hodgett was born in Berlin and became Reuter's special correspondent there. He has been in close contact with the Germany of to-day, and this has helped him to appreciate how mightily the Hohenzollerns have helped to make it what it is. (E. P. Dutton & Co., New York. $5.)

To his valuable "Spanish Series" Mr. Albert F. Calvert now adds "Valencia and Murcia." Like the previous volumes, this includes a collection of many pictures with comparatively little text. But how genuinely illustrative the pictures and how really descriptive the text! We may well wish for more of the latter. But that would not accord with Mr. Calvert's plan—a clever plan to appeal to the casual sightseer and the casual reader. (John Lane Company, New York. $1.50.)

Some time since The Outlook commended Professor Angelo Mosso's "Palaces of Crete." The author's later volume, "The Dawn of Mediterranean Civilization"—a translation of which has just appeared—deserves equal commendation. Like the other, it deals with prehistoric times. While the former volume was entirely occupied with excavations in Crete, this one treats of the whole question of the civilization of the stone, copper, and bronze ages, not only in Crete, but in other countries bordering on the Mediterranean, with special reference, however, to Italy and to the people who, from the Nile Valley, spread over the countries north of the Mediterranean. While the author has devoted himself with enthusiasm to research in primitive religion and art, he has also sought to trace out the origins of trade and navigation in the Mediterranean. Recent excavations in Egypt, Italy, and the Greek islands illustrate Professor Mosso's comparison of the material brought to light; over two hundred pictures reinforce his text. As in his former volume, so in this, Professor Mosso denies any intervention of the Indo-Germans in Mediterranean civilization. That civilization did not originate with the Indo-Germans, says this author, for the events of the Minoan age, antedating the Greek, must have occurred many thousand years before the separation of the Aryan peoples. When the earlier theory of the Asiatic origin of the Aryans could no longer be maintained, an attempt was made to locate the race in Europe. The claim of Scandinavia to be the Aryan birthplace having been disproved, our author next considers the claim of South Russia, but, in any event, as he concludes, the continuity of Cretan civilization from the neolithic age to that of copper and bronze would seem to be complete enough to exclude the assumption of the entrance of a foreign element from Asia Minor, or even from the north. The period between the Stone Age and the estab-

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lishment of the first Hellenic colonies will form the subject of a third volume by Professor Mosso, and the book will be awaited with much interest. (The Baker & Taylor Company, New York. $4.)

The Catholic Encyclopedia is a thoroughly international work in its comprehensive account of the institutions, doctrines, discipline, dignitaries, societies, teachers, and local conditions of the Church wherever existing. The tenth volume, lately issued, strikes attention with its significant alpha and omega: Mass—Newman. The definition given to Modernism in a six-page article by a Belgian father is concise enough: "the perversion of dogma"—dogma implying "supernatural knowledge," which, having been once communicated, stands unchangeable. In this connection may be noted the case of Professor Mivart. The biographical sketch given of this eminent British scientist states that he was denied the sacraments on his death-bed for refusing to sign a prescribed declaration of orthodoxy, and his interment in the Catholic cemetery refused till four years later, after his friends had produced a medical certificate that disease had weakened his mind. It is interesting to note that Calvinism retains the Catholic doctrine stated in the article on "Merit"—that God as absolutely sovereign cannot be under any obligation to his creatures, even of justice. The further statement, that "the majority of ordinary Christians must be deterred from sin principally by the fear of hell," is certainly not Calvinistic, and sounds venturesome. Among the more important articles in this volume are those on "Migration," "Missions," "Monasteries," and "Monasticism." It must be remembered, where religious denominations are compared in numbers, that church membership is reckoned more inclusively among Catholics than among Protestants. For Protestants as well as for Catholics this comprehensive work is of unsurpassed value for authoritative reference in its special line. (Robert Appleton Company, New York. $6.)

Closely following Mrs. Jenner's admirable "Christian Symbolism" comes a kindred work of yet more practical value, "Sacred Symbols in Art," by Elizabeth E. Goldsmith. Both books have probably drawn their inspiration from Mrs. Jameson's and Mrs. Clements's volumes on sacred and legendary art. The present volume is not bulky, like those, but is a small, compact book, just the thing for the traveler's pocket. The book's size, however, has not prevented the use of clear print and ample illustration. After treating of general symbols and their significance in art, also of colors as emblems, the author takes up her various subjects generically; symbols of the Godhead come first, of course, then symbols of the archangels, of the Madonna, of John the Baptist, of the four Evangelists, of the twelve Apostles, of St. Mary Magdalen, of the four Latin Fathers, of the patron saints of Christendom, of the four great Virgins of the Latin Church, of the other saints most frequently found in art, and, finally, of the monastic orders. For reference as one visits the galleries and for other use an alphabetic list of symbols is given; for instance, the first symbol in this alphabetical list is Anchor; thus, if one sees a saint depicted with an anchor in his hand or at his side, one may know that the saint is St. Clement, third Bishop of Rome, who suffered martyrdom, A.D. 100; if, however, the anchor is in connection with three balls, the saint is probably St. Nicholas, the patron saint of Russia. This list is followed by one equally useful—an alphabetical list of the saints with their distinguishing emblems. Of course the author might have expanded her book indefinitely by including a description of the great works of art. But this would doubtless have defeated her practical purpose. (G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York. $1.75.)

Mrs. Wilfrid Ward has made an interesting study of the processes of the human mind in a tale called "The Job Secretary." An English novelist, whose home relations are most cleverly indicated, has need of a temporary stenographer and secretary. One is supplied, and he is put into the trying position of finding her perfectly useless as hands for him, but most useful as a thought stimulant. His story progresses under her free discussion, and, almost unconsciously to him, it becomes her story instead of his own. How it is related to actual fact, and how it is used to untangle misunderstanding and restore happiness to a man and his wife, unhappily apart, it would be a pity to tell here. There is an accustomed tone in the author's style and use of material which gives value to her work. (Longmans, Green & Co., New York. $1.20.)

We are plunged into the midst of strange occult influences in the first chapter of Will Levington Comfort's new novel, "She Buildeth Her House." A man and a woman, destined for each other, mature, and possessing knowledge of good and evil, each have to fight and overcome malign factors in their lives before they reach the serene heights of victory. The woman strives against an occult power exerted by an evil priest of psychic forces. The man fights appetite which once overcame him. All the horrors of each situation are portrayed in detail, with nature as an accessory. The eruption of Pelée in Martinique brings on the crisis, but clears the atmosphere. There is a vast amount of fine writing in the book, which palls on the taste, but it may be that occultism and alcohol demand a strong and varied vocabulary. The fine figure of a devoted priest and the executive presence of an American millionaire give a touch of added human interest to the romance when it reaches Martinique. (The J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia. $1.25.)

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LETTERS TO THE OUTLOOK

MISREPRESENTING MR. ROOSEVELT

[The following letter from Rear-Admiral Mahan was printed in the New York "Times" of June 5. We reprint it here because it is an admirable characterization, by an independent observer, of the kind of misrepresentation to which Mr. Roosevelt is constantly subjected. The writer of this letter, whose naval and literary services have given him an international reputation, needs no introduction to the readers of The Outlook. In connection with the letter we call the attention of our readers to an article by Rear-Admiral Mahan on the Panama Canal in the "Century Magazine" for June. It is a clear and convincing statement of the international problems with which this country will have to deal in a very definite and practical way when the Panama Canal has been opened to the seagoing traffic of the world, and incidentally it sets forth in admirable shape what the proper attitude of our people should be towards proposals to arbitrate questions of National honor and vital National interest. The Outlook agrees with Mr. Roosevelt and with Admiral Mahan that the American people will never submit to arbitration the existence of the Monroe Doctrine or the complete American control of the Panama Canal, both of which questions would be subject to arbitration if we adopted unlimited arbitration treaties. We define our own views of the whole question of arbitration more fully in an editorial on another page.—THE EDITORS.]

To the Editor of the New York Times:

In the issue of the "Times" for June 1, the leading editorial article, entitled "A Roosevelt Incident," quotes the following words from Mr. Roosevelt's address to the veterans on Decoration Day:

"There are certain questions which we Americans would never think of arbitrating. One is the Monroe Doctrine, and another is the allowing of vast quantities of Asiatics to come here. We have got to stand out against agreeing to do these dangerous things, no matter what the short-sighted, false-peace advocates say."

Upon this the editorial comments:

"The famous speech of President Taft, which was the starting-point of the extensive and important international movement toward general arbitration now proceeding hopefully among the great Powers, made no mention of these exceptions and reservations. He is, obviously, the very chief of the 'short-sighted, false-peace advocates' whom Mr. Roosevelt takes occasion to hold up to public contempt."

The "Times" thus takes Mr. Roosevelt's speech and by a construction of its own makes of it a cap which it proceeds to fit to Mr. Taft's head.

Having a copy of Mr. Taft's speech of December 17, 1910, before me, I submit that this construction is quite unwarranted by the facts—of that speech. Mr. Taft did not, it is true, specify the Monroe Doctrine and Asiatic immigration as exceptions to the broad general proposition. It is not by elaborating exceptions in an after-dinner speech that such a proposition is initiated; and the overt initiation, as a matter of fact, was by the British Foreign Minister's speech in Parliament of March 13, indorsing that of President Taft. It is in the working out of the proposition that possible exceptions must be met and obviated, if success is to be attained.

Mr. Taft's specific words were: "If we *can negotiate* and put *through* a positive agreement with some great nation to abide the adjudication of an international arbitral court in every issue which cannot be settled by negotiation, no matter what it involves, whether honor, territory, or money, we shall have made a long step forward;" but the greater part of his address, two-thirds at least, was devoted to the justification of military preparations, notably the Panama fortification. "The discussion of needed military preparations," he said, "does not sound very well at a peace meeting, but the trouble about a peace meeting is that it seems to me to be just one-half the picture, and I want to introduce the whole picture in order that," etc. And again: "The trouble is that nations are quite as likely as men to violate their obligations under great stress like that of war."

It is difficult to see how such utterances, accessible to any seeker, and doubtless known to Mr. Roosevelt, can permit the speaker to be classed under the head of "short-sighted, false-peace advocates." That such a class exists will scarcely be denied. But the application to Mr. Taft is not in his own words, or in those of Mr. Roosevelt, but in an ill-founded assumption of the "Times."

Besides the above, it is a matter of common knowledge that Mr. Taft's Administration favors a strong navy, maintained in force by the provision of two new battleships annually. This is not the mark of short-sighted, false-peace advocacy.

Mr. Roosevelt's name seems to make the "Times" see red. Six months ago, in a letter which the "Times" did me the favor to publish, I pointed out that it was stating as a fact its own inference that Mr. Roosevelt, in overruling the machine of his own party, procuring the nomination of Mr. Stimson, and taking an active part in the campaign, was simply and selfishly seeking his own renomination in 1912. This perversion of inference into assertion undoubtedly helped to deprive the State of New York of the services of a Governor whom Mr. Taft has now invited into his Cabinet, a step

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which, in view of Mr. Stimson's past public career, seems to indicate a certain coincidence of judgment between Mr. Taft and Mr. Roosevelt. While the construction now placed upon Mr. Roosevelt's recent speech does not err in precisely the same way, it does err, and by most injurious intention, in not giving all the facts concerning Mr. Taft's speech. It is only by ignoring those facts that the offensive application of Mr. Roosevelt's words to Mr. Taft can be sustained.

A. T. MAHAN.

Quogue, Long Island, June 2, 1911.

"CAN A FREE PEOPLE BE FREE?"

I have read your editorial "Can a Free People be Free?" and it appears to me that this editorial is subject to criticism for three important reasons.

In the first place, as regards the justice of compelling an employer to pay damages to his workmen on account of accidents for which he is in no way responsible, your argument to me is unsound. It would make the investment of capital a very hazardous matter. A serious calamity caused by something for which the investor is in no way responsible might create sufficient damage to wipe out or seriously impair the capital invested. Do you consider it fair to put such a hazard upon capital? You say that this could be provided for by adding to the cost of the commodity, and so pass the burden on to the consumer. Even if this were possible, many years would have to elapse before a sufficient amount could be saved out of earnings to provide against any serious loss, and until that time the capital invested would be in danger of being wiped out or seriously impaired. Seamen, you say, are cared for in accidents occurring on shipboard, but did not this law arise because on shipboard he could not care for himself, he had no family to care for him, and there was therefore no one else but his ship to look after him? But even the caring for a man is entirely different from paying big damages. It could never impair the capital invested in the ship.

Your criticism of the Court's decision invalidating this law because it deprives the employer of property without due process of law is, in my opinion, not well taken. You assume that, simply because the employer has the right to bring into court the question as to whether the accident occurred in the due course of business and by willful misconduct of the workmen, it therefore is done by due process of law. This is indeed a very elastic interpretation of "due process of law." By analogous reasoning, a Legislature could confiscate entirely the property of, say, the Sugar Trust, for some comparatively slight offense. The Sugar Trust could come to court to decide whether it was guilty or not, and, if not, its property would be confiscated by due process of the law—the law of the Legislature. This example is, in my opinion, not very far advanced from the law which you defend compelling an employer to pay tens of thousands, perhaps hundreds of thousands, of dollars damages for an accident over which he had no control. "Due process of law" must have equity at the basis of it as well as the formal legal proceeding.

You yourself state the essence of the difference between these two kinds of "processes of law" when you say that the Supreme Court upheld the Oklahoma law providing assessments for guarantee of bank deposits because it took a comparatively *insignificant* part of private property for an ulterior public advantage. There is a vast difference between taking an insignificant part of a man's property and impairing his entire capital. And the Oklahoma law should lead to the right solution for indemnity to injured workmen by putting a small tax on either employer, or employer and employee both, and have the State take charge of it.

But there is still a more serious criticism to make of your editorial, and that is the manner and spirit of your criticising the New York Court of Appeals. The Court of Appeals affirms one thing and The Outlook another. In other words, you put yourself on a par with the Court of Appeals and consider that your opinion is as good in the matter as that of the Court, and, furthermore, make very serious criticisms against the Court for disregarding all considerations of social justice and public policy and setting itself against justice and the civilized world simply because it has rendered an opinion different from yours, and that in spite of the fact that the Court has gone into the question very thoroughly, as you yourself admit, and has given due consideration to all the arguments of public policy and social justice which have been placed before it. It is evident, therefore, that the Court acted most conscientiously in deciding this case in conformity with what it believed to be the letter and spirit of the Constitution of the United States.

It seems to me that there is very serious danger in such an attitude towards the courts. A great deal has been said on this subject since Mr. Roosevelt's recent attacks on certain decisions. If such criticisms and attacks as yours are perfectly proper, what confidence can we have in our judiciary when any layman's opinion can be considered as good as that of a court of supposedly able jurists? Combine this attitude with the demand for the recall of judges, and what is the future of the judiciary? The judges will then, like politicians, be obliged to hold their ear to the ground and render decisions according to whatever they believe to be in sympathy with public demand, regardless of what the law may or may not say. Our legal system would be chaos, and opinions would be made, not on personal belief, but merely on a guess as to what public opinion wanted. And what is public opinion? It is a very vague, indistinct term of whose meaning no one can be sure until a vote is registered. I know of many exam-

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ples, particularly in the last Chicago mayoralty election, in which nearly all of the newspapers, which are supposed to reflect public opinion, favored one candidate, but the votes of the people were decisively against him.

It seems to me that President Taft's attitude in this matter is the correct one. In the last Congress many Senators and Congressmen wanted to pass an income tax on the belief that the Supreme Court would declare it Constitutional, but President Taft said, "No. This law has been declared unconstitutional. Let us first pass an amendment to the Constitution authorizing such a law, and then we will pass one." This seems to be a roundabout way of securing legislation; but unless needed legislation is accomplished by laws which conform to the meaning of the Constitution at the time it was written, we are going into very dangerous territory. And the judges, and not laymen, should be left to decide what the Constitution really does signify. We must presume that our judges are honest, able, and competent to do this. There may be a few who are not, but if we hold this opinion of our judiciary generally, then we might as well admit that our present form of government is a failure.

You refer in your article to the Dred Scott decision and Judge Taney's intention to stop the liberation of the slaves; but able jurists and historians have since then admitted that Taney's decision did conform to the Constitution, that the Constitution did not recognize the slaves in any way apart from other property, and Judge Taney simply took the Constitution as he found it and was not trying to stop the freeing of the slaves. In the same way the courts of to-day must be bound by what they find in the Constitution of the States and the United States, regardless of what they would like to decide or what public opinion would like to have them decide. The door of amendments is always open for any change that the people want. The only way that "a free people can be free" is by upholding the written law of the land.

ADOLPH FRIEDMAN.

Grand Rapids, Michigan.

[This correspondent does not attempt to refute the arguments of The Outlook; he does not even directly deny its conclusion that the Workmen's Compensation Act is not unconstitutional. This, however, is probably due to the fact that he has regard to the limitations of space necessarily imposed upon him by the pressure upon the columns of such a publication as The Outlook. His objections to the article in question are two: First, that the Act would work injustice to the capitalists; second, that the press ought not to criticise the courts. We think there is some force in his contention that a Workmen's Compensation Act might sometimes work hardship to the capitalists, though no such hardship as the present method frequently works; but the present law, which leaves all workmen practically without any adequate protection from the accidents of the business in which they are engaged, almost uniformly works injustice to the workmen. In view of this fact, it is the judgment of the Christian world that the present law ought to be changed, and the accidents of business made to fall upon the business itself, not upon the individual worker. This view is incorporated in the legislation of every Christian country except Switzerland and the United States, and it is also incorporated in the laws of an increasing number of our individual States. We cannot agree with our correspondent that it is improper for the press to criticise the courts. The American people will never consent to accept the doctrine that the king can do no wrong transformed into the doctrine that the courts can do no wrong. Democracy knows no infallible authority. The courts also are servants of the people, and must be answerable to the people. All criticism of the courts, as all criticism of other officials, ought to be temperate, reasonable, and respectful. But to exempt any function of the Government from public criticism is to make it autocratic, and tends to make it despotic. The Outlook expects always to treat the decisions of the courts with respect, but it also expects always to hold itself free to criticise those decisions when, in its judgment, they are against public justice and the public welfare.—THE EDITORS.]

SENATOR HOAR AND THE ANTI-TRUST LAW

In connection with the Standard Oil decision by the Supreme Court of the United States and The Outlook's interesting interpretation thereof, some light may be thrown on the true construction of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law by a passage from the late Senator George F. Hoar's "Autobiography of Seventy Years." The position of The Outlook that the Court, speaking through Chief Justice White, did not read into the law any new words, seems to be in a measure, perhaps entirely, justified by the accompanying passage from Senator Hoar's book, and, although it will require time and an attempted adjustment by the great industrial concerns to the principles of the decision, yet this apparently unnoticed bit of history would indicate that the true rule of construction for the Anti-Trust Law has been announced.

In the chapter on "Trust" Senator Hoar says: "In 1890 a bill was passed which was called the Sherman Act, for no other reason that I can think of except that Mr. Sherman had nothing to do with framing it whatever."

After explaining that Sherman's proposed bill was rejected by the Senate Judiciary Committee, and that an amended bill as drawn by him was accepted and became the law, Senator Hoar then tells what was in-

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tended by the words used in the Act which he says he was responsible for. He adds:

It was expected that the Court, in administering that law, would confine its operation to cases which are contrary to the policy of the law, treating the words "agreements in restraint of trade" as having a technical meaning, such as they are supposed to have in England. The Supreme Court of the United States went in this particular farther than was expected. In one case it held that "the bill comprehended every scheme that might be devised to restrain trade or commerce among the several States or with foreign nations." From this opinion several of the Court, including Mr. Justice Gray, dissented. It has not been carried to its full extent since, and I think will never be held to prohibit the lawful and harmless combinations which have been permitted in this country and in England without complaint, like contracts of partnership, which are usually considered harmless. We thought it was best to use this general phrase which, as we thought, had an accepted and well-known meaning in the English law, and then, after it had been construed by the Court, and a body of decisions had grown up under the law, Congress would be able to make such further amendments as might be found by experience necessary.

He adds that the statute has worked well. His account of the framing of this law was written some years ago, and yet applies perfectly to the decision of last week.

WAYNE C. WILLIAMS.

Denver, Colorado.

DEATH IN THE MINE

Again a great disaster, the greatest in the history of the State of Alabama, and one of the greatest in the country, has visited the Banner mine, twenty miles northwest of Birmingham. At the time of the explosion, April 8, 1911, about one hundred and sixty men, mostly Negro convicts, were in the mine; one hundred and twenty-eight of these were killed. The records at State Mine Inspector Hillhouse's office show the following to be the correct number of deaths caused by explosions: In 1905 ninety men were killed; in 1907, fifty-six; in 1908, six; in 1909, eighteen; in 1910, one hundred and thirty-seven; making a total of four hundred and thirty-eight men killed in a little over five years. From these facts it is clear that over sixty per cent of the deaths occurred during the past seventeen months.

Now, the point I wish to emphasize is not whether it is right for a State to employ its convicts in coal mines, but to emphasize the fact that explosions can be brought to a minimum by proper appliances and proper care. Systematic co-operation between State and miners can prevent to a great extent these terrible disasters. The State must see to it that all mines are as safe as wise precautions and careful inspections by capable men can make them. Somebody is responsible for the one hundred and twenty-eight men killed at Banner. The present laws of the State do not give adequate protection, but it is hoped that the proper laws will soon be passed. A justly aroused public demands such laws.

It is a fact that only a small number of men are killed directly by explosions; the greater number die from after effects, such as closed rooms and poisonous gases. Most of the men killed at Banner showed signs of being neither burned nor bruised, but met death by being unable to escape through the poisonous gases which always form after an explosion. Now, is it not possible to form some avenue of escape for men under such conditions?

The frequency of mine disasters and the increasing number of men killed show the need of radical changes in existing conditions.

B. L. MERKEL.

Birmingham, Alabama.

MEDICAL INSTRUCTION FOR WOMEN IN CHINA

The number of Chinese women who have received or who can receive a thorough medical education abroad, returning to employ their knowledge for the benefit of their sisters in China, must, of necessity, always be limited. The desperate need of the women of China for modern scientific medical care, as well as for instruction in hygiene, dietetics, and the principles of nursing, renders necessary many schools in which these and allied branches can be taught. A well-equipped and well-staffed Woman's Medical College has for many years been in operation in the suburbs of the city of Canton, under the care of Drs. Mary Niles and Mary Fulton. The highest officials in the province have cordially commended its work and praised its methods. The modest, well-taught, scientifically trained and thoroughly competent young women who graduate from this institution can do, and are doing, a work for China which no foreigners can ever accomplish, since they move along lines of least resistance, finding ready entrance to the homes of all classes. One of the group of union educational institutions centered in Peking, organized within the past few years, is the Union Woman's Medical College, under the auspices of the Methodist Episcopal Women's Board, but co-operated in by the other missions in the capital of the Empire. This college is destined to be a mighty power in the not distant future. Medical instruction for Chinese women is also given in various other parts of China, but generally on a scale far too limited. As a concrete result of the great jubilee of woman's work abroad all such institutions should be well equipped and amply endowed. For this important work no country is so well situated as our own, and our beneficence will surely in the end be repaid many fold.

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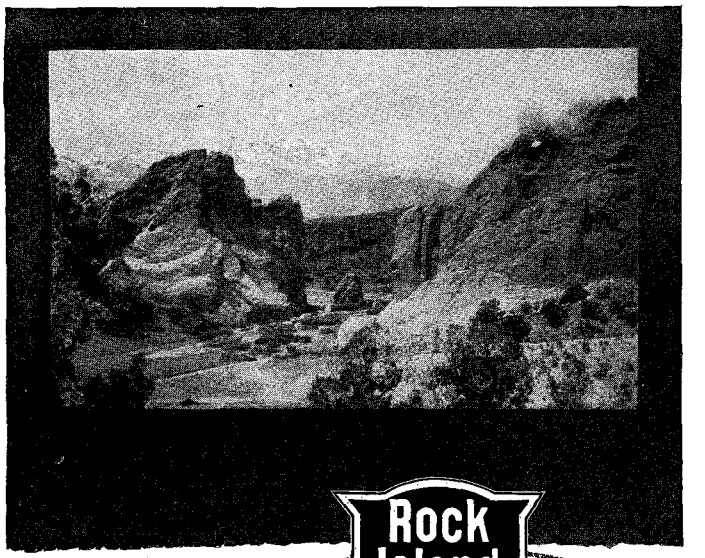

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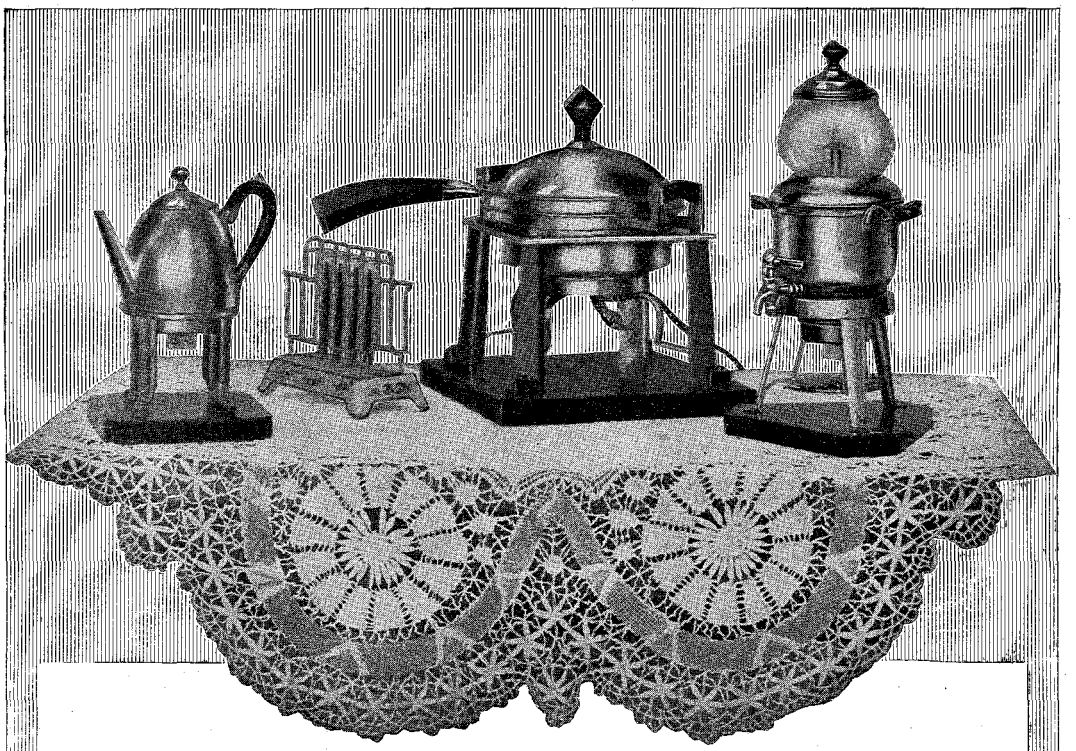

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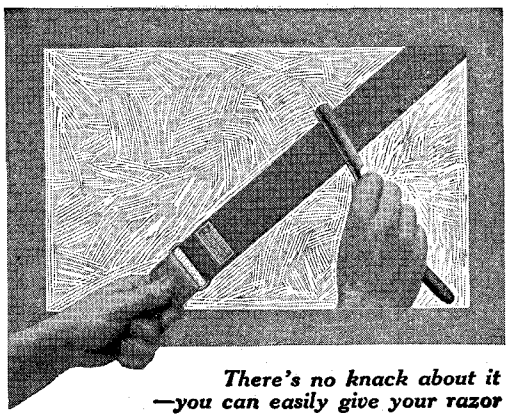

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